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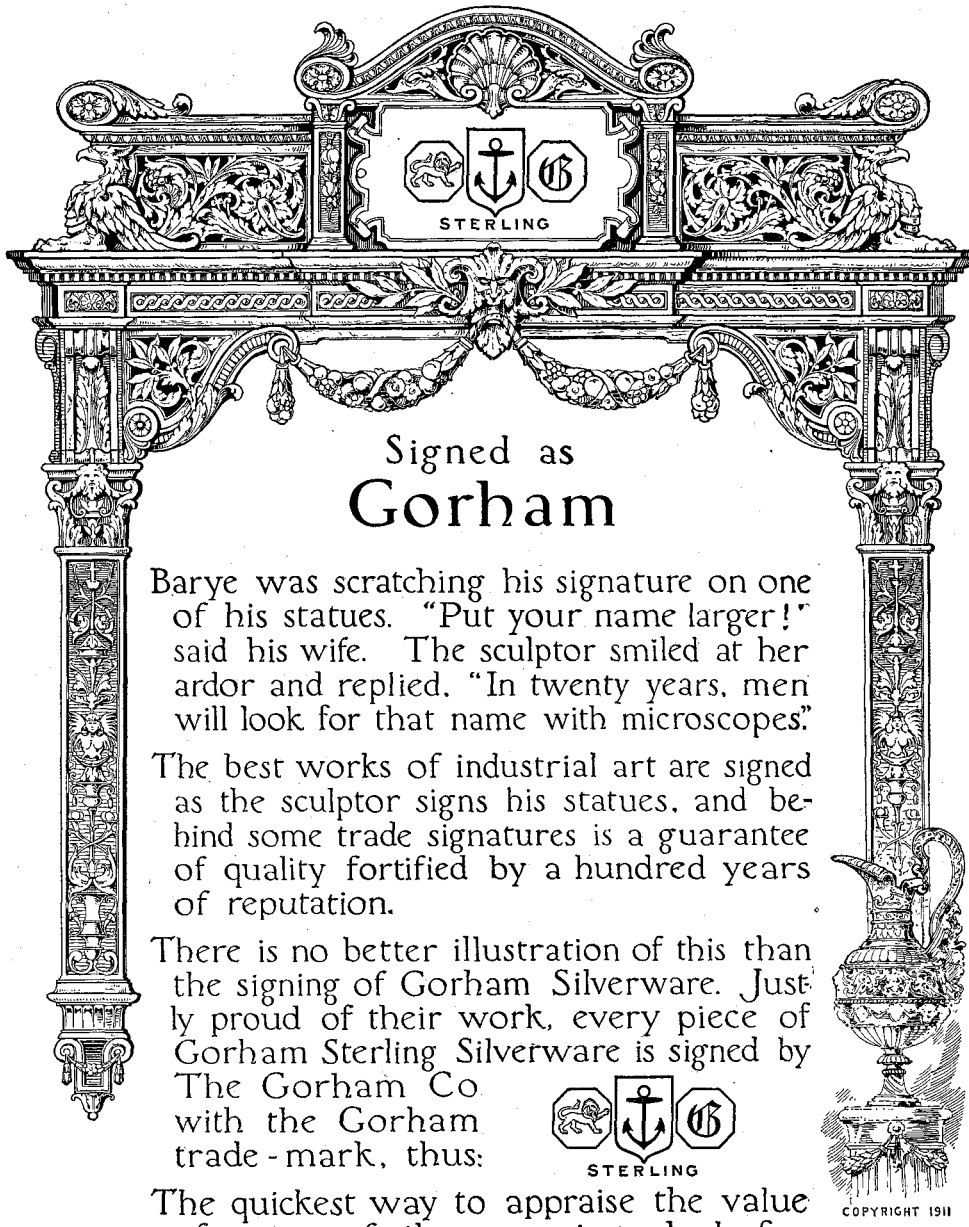

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The Outlook

MARCH 18, 1911

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
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Contributing Editor

THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

The country was startled, but not alarmed, last week by the announcement that orders had been issued from the War Department for the mobilization near the frontier between the United States and Mexico of a very large part of the United States regular army available for active service. Troops to the number of twenty thousand were set in motion by these orders, and have since been concentrating at San Antonio, where a suitable camp has been rapidly prepared for them, while some two thousand marines have proceeded to our naval station at Guantanamo, in Cuba, and a squadron of five fast cruisers, with their auxiliaries, has been sent to Galveston. The order for these extensive military movements states that the troops are being mobilized "for purposes of field instruction." It was inevitable, however, that the press, in view of the disturbed condition of things now existing in Mexico, should instantly begin to seek for other reasons. Such reasons, it is now generally admitted, do exist, but they are not of a character to inspire fear of reckless or uncalled-for action on the part of our Government. Everything that has been done by our Government with regard to this military movement has taken place with the knowledge of the Mexican Government, and the explanations offered to President Diaz by President Taft have been in the fullest degree satisfactory. There is nothing, indeed, which could possibly give the Mexican Government alarm, for no dispute of any sort now exists between that Government and ours, nor are there at this moment any serious causes for a break in the amicable relations between the two countries. There might, however, be reason to apprehend that misunderstandings should arise if our Government were not very much alive to the necessity of doing everything in its power to assure neutrality on the Mexican border, to prevent the territory of the United States from being used as a recruiting place for the Mexican insurgents, and to fulfill its obligations in the matter of restraining the passing across the border of arms and ammunition for the service of the Mexican insurgents.

THE PRESENT SITUATION

The present insurrection in Mexico is not, apparently, of great proportions so far as the number of men engaged is concerned. Nor is Madero, or any of his leaders, likely to attempt to meet any large body of the Government forces in the open field. But the recent scene of action has been near the border of the United States, and the insurgents have cut the railways and are carrying on a series of skirmishes and attacks. To what extent Americans of a not very responsible type, adventurers who always flock to scenes of disturbances, are joining the insurgents, is indicated by the report of an engagement last week at Casas Grandes, in which Madero's forces were routed; these reports state that no fewer than thirty-six Americans in Madero's troops were captured in that battle, and that several Americans were killed. Beyond this necessity of guarding our border and maintaining the obligations of international law, it must be noted also that, apart from the military situation in Mexico, there is a disturbed political condition, that doubts are expressed as to what may take place if President Diaz should die, resign, or become incapable of ruling, and that the lives, rights, and property of Americans in Mexico must be safeguarded by our Government. There have been reports, not confirmed positively as we write, that

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one or more foreign Governments have become disturbed as to the possibilities of a general political break-up in Mexico, and that intimation has been given to the United States that European Governments, in view of our Monroe Doctrine and the position we assume towards the republics south of us on account of the Doctrine, will look to us to do everything in our power to prevent Mexico falling into such a condition as we have seen in recent years in Venezuela and Nicaragua. All these considerations (as well as the value for purposes of military education of such a large and sudden movement) have probably influenced President Taft and the War Department in making what is not at all a hostile, but rather a friendly, demonstration on our southern border. No one questions the right of a nation to move its troops within its own territory wherever it chooses; such an action may be regarded as suspicious and even hostile where the relations between the two countries justify that suspicion; but in this case there is absolutely nothing to indicate even the possibility of unfriendly action on our side toward the present Government of Mexico. As was seen years ago in Cuba, intervention is not a measure lightly to be entered upon, nor at all likely to occur unless a very serious and wide-extended cause of complaint exists, or such a state of affairs arises as practically amounts to anarchy and the total failure of a foreign Government to guard properly the safety and security of Americans within its territory. The United States is in a special sense responsible for decent government and good order in the southern nations of America, and it is not averse to showing the world that it is ready and able to act promptly and effectively if need be.

A DISCREDITED SENATOR

Senator Lorimer, of Illinois, is now a member of the United States Senate in regular standing; some recent significant echoes of public opinion indicate, however, that it would hardly be accurate to add, in good standing. It is true that on his arrival in Chicago on Sunday, March 5, he was greeted by a large number of admiring constituents who celebrated his home-coming with a reception, speeches, and bands of music. Popularity, however, is not always an indication of political integrity. On the same day in Rockford, Illinois, there was held a mass-meeting of nearly two thousand citizens at which resolutions were passed calling for the resignations of Senator Lorimer and Senator Cullom—for the first, because of an expressed belief that Senator Lorimer was elected "by and through the use of corrupt and illegal methods," and for the second, because Senator Cullom voted to retain Senator Lorimer in his seat. During the meeting the bell of a neighboring church tolled forty-six times as a melancholy recognition of the forty-six votes which enabled Senator Lorimer to remain in the United States Senate. The Assembly of the California Legislature has passed the following resolution:

> Whereas the Senate of the United States has brought itself low in the sight of the people and also brought upon them profound humiliation by its action in deliberately seating as representative of the people a man concerning whom it has been clearly and notoriously shown that bribery was used in his election, now therefore be it resolved, that in seating William Lorimer as a member of the United States Senate this Nation has been humiliated, that the esteem with which the United States Senate is held has thereby been lowered, that it is with regret that we see the names of our United States Senators (Senators Flint and Perkins) among the forty-six who voted to seat this man, and we feel that such flagrant corruption should not have gone unrebuked by the United States Senate.

The California Legislature is a Republican body, and therefore this condemnation cannot be ascribed to partisan politics. Many other meetings and formal resolutions in various parts of the country have expressed similar protests. It is difficult to understand how any self-respecting man can retain a public office in the face of such condemnation as has been laid upon Senator Lorimer, not merely by the country at large, but by forty of his colleagues in the Senate of the United States, including the ablest and most high-minded members of that body.

MR. BALLINGER RESIGNS

After two years of service in the midst of criticism, controversy, and investigation, Richard A. Ballinger, Secretary of the Interior, has resigned. The policy

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that he has pursued in office has aroused such antagonism that from almost the first week of his term he has devoted his strength not solely to his executive work, but also to what he has regarded as measures of self-defense. The consequent strain upon his health is the reason he assigns for his withdrawal. It now appears that he once before offered his resignation, but at the President's request remained in office until after the adjournment of Congress. Why Congress, which ordered the investigation of Mr. Ballinger's Department, took no action on the reports of the investigating committee has never been officially explained. In the letter accepting "with great reluctance" his resignation, President Taft declares that Mr. Ballinger has been the "object of one of the most unscrupulous conspiracies for the defamation of character that history can show," and that "the impressions" of him as a man and a public officer were the "result of a malicious and unprincipled plan for the use of the press" to misrepresent him. The President continues:

> With the hypocritical pretense that they did not accuse you of corruption in order to avoid the necessity that even the worst criminal is entitled to—to wit, that of a definitely formulated charge of some misconduct—they showered you with suspicion, and by the most pettifogging methods exploited to the public matters which had no relevancy to an issue of either corruption or inefficiency in office, but which, paraded before a hysterical body of headline readers, served to blacken your character and to obscure the proper issue of your honesty and effectiveness as a public servant.

Who "they" are the President does not say. It is hardly necessary to remind our readers that The Outlook has been among those who not only have not accused Mr. Ballinger of corruption, but have said that the evidence did not compel the conclusion that Mr. Ballinger had been guilty of any deliberate wrong intent. Nevertheless, The Outlook has found the evidence overwhelmingly conclusive that Mr. Ballinger has not been a fit head of the Department of the Interior. At the close of the investigation by a Committee of Congress of the Department we printed our review, "The Ballinger Case," and stated our conclusions. It is unnecessary to make any full summary of them here; it is sufficient to quote the concluding sentence of that review: "The verdict of history will be that he did not understand either the spirit and purposes of the people of his time or the duties and functions of his great office." That his occupancy of that office has resulted in what the President has called a "cruel tragedy" is due in no small degree to the fact that a question which was exclusively a matter for prompt and final as well as just decision by the executive branch of the Government was allowed to become a subject of legislative interference and long-drawn-out public debate. The Ballinger case is a lesson to all future executive officers in State and Nation. It has, however, been productive of great good, by reducing to concrete form the great issues involved in Conservation, and thus enabling the American people to understand their nature and importance.

THE NEW SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR

Coincident with the announcement of Mr. Ballinger's retirement as head of the Interior Department came last week the welcome news of the appointment, as his successor, of Mr. Walter L. Fisher. President Taft, in making this appointment, has shown fine tolerance, great breadth of mind, and a high order of wisdom. His letter to Mr. Ballinger shows how strongly his feelings have been enlisted on Mr. Ballinger's behalf in this controversy; and yet, in choosing a new head of the Department, he has taken a man who is in many ways Mr. Ballinger's antithesis. Mr. Fisher is one of the most prominent and useful citizens of Chicago. It is interesting to note that, unlike the appointment of Mr. Ballinger, the appointment of Mr. Fisher has been disregardful of geographical considerations. Mr. Fisher is resident of not only the same city but also the same ward as two other members of the Cabinet. Born in Wheeling, Virginia (now West Virginia), on the second Independence Day of the Civil War, graduated at twenty-one years of age from Hanover College in Indiana, of which his father was President, admitted to the bar in 1888, he has for the past eleven years been one of the most forceful and able leaders on behalf of popular and

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efficient government. Although he had before held public office, he began his distinguished service on behalf of the public welfare in 1901 by becoming the Secretary of the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago. In 1906 he was chosen President of the League. This organization has achieved extraordinary results in the municipal government of Chicago. It found the City Council corrupt and inefficient. Instead of trying to abolish it, as other cities have done, the League set about the task of making the Council a real municipal legislature; and it has succeeded. Chicago has had an especially difficult transit problem, in which corruption, bad management, and public indifference have been factors. Mr. Fisher, as a leader in the League, and later as special counsel to Mayor Dunne, did more, probably, than any other one man to bring order out of chaos. This is the more extraordinary inasmuch as he supported the political opponent of the Mayor who selected him. That he was virtually forced finally to retire did not prevent his actual success. He has therefore shown a high degree of executive ability. He is a ready and effective speaker. Most significant of all, he is one of the leaders of what is known as the Conservation Movement. When, in 1909, the National Conservation Association, of which at first President Eliot and later Mr. Gifford Pinchot became President, was formed, Mr. Fisher, in conjunction with Mr. Pinchot, drew up its declaration of principles. He has been from the beginning, and still is, Vice-President of the Association. He has declared himself a believer in the power of the Federal Government to control the water powers on non-navigable streams. This is one of the crucial questions in Conservation. It is a satisfaction to be assured that the head of the Interior Department is not one who willingly will let this untold water power—the "white coal" of the future—fall into the hands of a privileged few. His legal knowledge regarding the powers of the Government has been tested by his experience in practicing before the Inter-State Commerce Commission, and has been recognized by his appointment as a member of the committee to investigate railway securities. His standards regarding honesty in the public service are indicated by what he has done as counsel for the Merriam Commission in investigating corruption in Chicago. No one can tell what success will attend him as Secretary of the Interior, but his first-hand experience with the power and craft of special interests, his proved ability and aggressive honesty, and his convictions regarding the power of the Government he is to serve, furnish him with some of the essential materials of success. He will begin his term as a member of the Cabinet supported by the good will of the country.

THE TARIFF BOARD

Last week President Taft announced the appointment of two new members of the Tariff Board. They are Thomas W. Page, Professor of Economics in the University of Virginia, and ex-Representative William M. Howard, of Georgia. Both are Democrats. As one member of the present Board is supposed to be quite "Democratic" in sentiment, the addition of these two Democrats certainly makes the Board non-partisan. It is interesting to know that, had the Tariff Board Bill passed, providing for a non-partisan, permanent Board of five members, the same men would have been added to the existing three members of the present body in constituting the new Board. In these latest appointments the President has given another indication of his conviction of many years that the tariff should be taken out of politics. He was anxious to have the Tariff Board Bill passed. But, as it did not pass, he felt that he had power to create a temporary Board of exactly the same character. The existing Board is the creature of the President, not of Congress. The commission contemplated in the Tariff Board Bill would have been the creature of Congress, not the President; and would have been compelled to report to Congress. Though Congress may ask, as the Senate did the other day, for a report from the Board on certain commodities, the Board is not in duty bound to reply unless by permission of the President. But when the results of its work are published, they may prove to have practically as much economic and moral influence on the country as if had they been reported directly

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to the legislative branch. Established under the authority given by Congress to the President to use "such persons as may be required" to assist him in the application of the maximum and minimum section of the Tariff Law, a wide latitude was given for the acquisition, under circumstances favorable to its accuracy, of information respecting the cost of production of goods at home and abroad, not only throwing much light on the operation of the present tariff, but of primary importance as officially collected data upon which future executive action and executive recommendations may be based. Thus, without any mandate of law, the President organized the "persons" into a Tariff Board, and has obtained from them not only the benefit outlined by Congress, but another and more important benefit, directly connected with the public welfare. For he has now at hand a mass of information, not of a partisan or prejudiced character, ready for use whenever a new tariff is desirable. Certainly, in connection with the Tariff Board, Mr. Taft has leaned toward a liberal, rather than a narrow, conception of duty. The liberal interpretation, we submit, is the proper one under any circumstances, but especially at the present time, when special interests are endeavoring unduly to dominate Governmental action. Because of the inability of Congress to get the facts from impartial sources, statements have been quoted in Congressional tariff debates of the most contradictory character. Such differences in statistics would not be apparent in the conclusions of a non-partisan Tariff Board. While Congress is not bound by anything that the present Tariff Board does, it will be practically impossible for Congressmen to ignore either the desire of most manufacturers to co-operate with the Tariff Board or the Board's own findings. An indication that Congress does appreciate these things is shown not only by its appropriation last month of $225,000 for the Board's expenditure during the ensuing fiscal year, but also by its request for a statement of the wool schedule by December 1. Thus the "non-partisan" permanent idea has already become effective in so far as the "non-partisan" is concerned. It remains with Congress to make the "permanent" effective.

A POSTAL INVESTIGATION

A few hours before final adjournment on March 4, the Senate, as already reported in these columns, abandoned the "rider" on the Post-Office Appropriations Bill increasing the rate of postage on the advertising pages of certain magazines and periodicals. In place of this proposed legislation the Senate and the House passed a joint resolution providing for a Commission to investigate the cost of transporting and handling second-class mail, and appropriating the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars to pay the expenses of such a Commission. The Commission is to be appointed by the President, and is to consist of three persons, "one of whom shall be a Judge of the Supreme Court of the United States, and the other two of whom shall hold no office, and no one of whom shall be connected with the Post-Office Department or have any interest in any business directly or indirectly affected by the publishing of magazines or newspapers using the mails of the United States." The country is to be congratulated upon this outcome of a very bitter controversy. The creation of this Commission is not only an effective step in the direction of an impartial investigation of the question at issue between the Administration and the periodical publishers, but it may lead, as we hope it will, to an improvement in the general efficiency of the Post Office Department. There is, however, some doubt whether the language of the resolution may be so construed as to enable the Commission to receive sufficient evidence to make its findings as broad as the public service requires. This can be determined only after the Commission is organized and determines upon the rules which shall govern its procedure. If, for example, it should find that it costs the Government nine cents a pound, as the Postmaster-General claims that it does, to carry second-class matter through the mails, without making any inquiry as to whether this cost is a reasonable one or whether it is based upon the application of efficient business methods, we do not think the country will be satisfied until Congress makes provision for a more complete inquiry. It is quite clear that the smallness of the appropriation for the expenses of the Commission places some-

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what narrow limits upon the scope of the investigation. But in any event its deliberations must call general attention to several phases of the postal service which are of vital interest to the public. In one respect the resolution creating the Commission is open to objection. We heartily welcome the attempt of the President to make the Commission one of dignity and authority; the appointment of Justice Hughes as the head of the Commission is a complete assurance that its work and deliberations will be conducted on a high plane; but it seems to us inappropriate that a Justice of the Supreme Court should be one of its members. The Commission, as we read the resolution, is to perform the functions of a sort of grand jury; it is to investigate facts, sift evidence, and make a presentment to the President upon which he may base his recommendation to Congress next December for some specific legislation. A Judge of what has been well called "the highest court in Christendom" ought not to be asked to leave the bench to become a juryman in a case so limited as that which the resolution presents to the Commission, especially in view of the fact that the Justices of the Supreme Court are already overworked in considering great and important questions of Constitutional law.

THE PRESIDENT'S NEW SECRETARY

The Hon. Charles Dewey Hilles, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, is to be Secretary to the President. Mr. Hilles is nearly forty-four years old, and is a native of Ohio. He received his early education there, became superintendent of the boys' industrial school at Lancaster, Ohio, and then superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum at Dobbs Ferry. An indication of his administration of these two schools is shown by the fact that under him buildings were erected by them at a total cost of two million dollars. Nearly two years ago he was appointed Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, but he remains an active director of the New York Juvenile Asylum, of the Dobbs Ferry Hospital, of the National Conference on Charities and Correction, the National Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children, and is a member of the executive committee of the Playground Association of America. Mr. Hilles's addresses before the Conference of Charities and Correction at four of its recent annual meetings were marked features of those gatherings. An authority on child education, we hope that his transfer will mean a greater influence from the White House in behalf of the bill providing for a Children's Bureau in one of the Executive Departments. Mr. Hilles replaces Mr. Charles Dyer Norton, who also had been an Assistant Secretary of the Treasury before becoming Secretary to the President. Mr. Norton resigns his office to become vice-president of one of the three largest banks in the country. He retires from the White House having well accomplished his plans for reorganizing the work there. His ideal was to create a permanent staff, so as to maintain White House standards and traditions smoothly and uninterruptedly one generation after another. To do this, salaries had to be increased. The new staff is headed by an Executive Clerk who has the assistance of a Chief Clerk and an Appointment Clerk. All of them receive larger salaries than those paid to the former Assistant Secretaries, that position being abolished. The new scheme of recompense enables men to take the positions of Executive Clerk and Chief Clerk, finding them comparatively well paid, honorable and interesting. Thus men adapted to the work will be likely to continue at it and to enjoy it. The readjustment of the scale of pay was gladly accepted by the legislators at the Capitol, because the total amount estimated was less than the total appropriation under the old arrangement—this because a number of superfluous minor positions were abolished. After the bill had passed the House and gone to the Senate, it was proposed to raise the salary of the Secretary from $6,000 to $10,000, if possible, so that a President might be able to bring into that office a man who perhaps could be secured only for such salary. With some opposition from those chronic objectors, Senators Bailey and Davis, the provision passed the Senate, but, in conference with the House, the increased salary was reduced from $10,000 to $7,500. We are sorry that it was.

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For, excellent as are the abilities of the late and present incumbent, and fine as is their spirit in sacrificing far larger salaries in order to serve the President, it is clear that the President's office should be better fortified; in particular, that the Secretary to the President should, in dignity and reward, be close to the Cabinet officers in official rank.

THE RAILWAYS AND PRIVATE PROFIT

Mr. Louis D. Brandeis, who with such signal ability conducted before the Inter-State Commerce Commission the case of the opponents of increased railway rates, has again shown his broad-minded understanding of economic and industrial conditions by publicly espousing the right of the railways to large profits when they are earned by efficiency and good service. At a hearing before the Railroad Securities Commission last week he stated the case in the following language: "Railroading being a private business, the corporation must, in order to secure capital as well as ability and zeal in management, offer the ordinary incentives of private business, namely, liberal money rewards." As our readers know, Mr. Brandeis is an earnest advocate of the application to the railway business of what is now known as "scientific management." Railways which successfully employ this means of securing efficiency are entitled, he believes, to the increased profits accruing from it. To this end Mr. Brandeis makes two practical suggestions. The first is that the principle of a sliding scale of dividends, which is in successful operation in the gas business in Boston, should be adopted in the railway business of the country. This principle is "that the greater the service to the public, the greater should be the profit to those furnishing that service," and is the exact opposite of a rule fixing a maximum return on capital of a specified rate per cent. Mr. Brandeis admits that the problem presented in the case of the Boston Gas Company was a simple one, while that involved in adapting the sliding scale idea to the railways is "infinitely more difficult." But he believes that the Inter-State Commerce Commission can in time devise a workable method. "The simple ultimate unit costs of each operation in every department of every railroad ought to be ascertained. They should be properly supervised, analyzed, classified, and compared; so that each railroad should have the benefit of knowing the lowest unit cost of each operation attained by any American railroad and how it was attained." This, Mr. Brandeis suggests, could be done by the establishment of a Federal Bureau of Railways and the maintenance of an Experimental Station in Railway Economics which would correspond to the experimental stations in the Department of Agriculture. Mr. Brandeis points out that the Federal Government now undertakes with excellent results, through a special bureau of the Department of Agriculture, to promote scientific road-building throughout the United States. An experimental station in railway economics would be of "service in testing the inventions made and methods suggested by others and bringing to the attention of the railroads those of special value." In a recent address on the achievements of modern democracy Mr. Edward A. Filene, of Boston, calls attention to the industrial as well as financial advantages of the sliding scale system under which the Boston Gas Company conducts its business. It not only is paying a dividend of nine per cent "with the approbation and good will of the public," but its workmen are becoming stockholders, and the company has lately put upon its directorate a workman elected by the workmen stockholders. Neither the "sliding scale" nor "scientific management" nor any other device can be a panacea for industrial and financial tribulations, but, novel as they are, these new methods are capable of being developed into great practical aids in solving some of the acute railway problems of the time.

SPIELHAGEN AND UHDE

A generation ago Friedrich Spielhagen, the novelist, who died recently at the age of eighty-two, was widely read both in Germany and in this country, where his stories appeared in excellent translations. It was at the time when Americans were still reading Freytag's "Debit and Credit" and philosophical novels

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like Auerbach's "On the Heights." Spielhagen's "Hammer and Anvil" and "Problematic Characters" were much cruder as fiction, but they were charged with the spirit of revolt, and they appealed strongly to young readers. In a much less brilliant way there was in them something of the quality which stirred all Germany when Schiller's "The Robbers" first appeared. They dealt with the mental and social revolt in its early stages. They were unconventional, and chanted the praises of the free life; but they were innocent and old-fashioned compared with its current expressions. They had, however, this taking quality: they were hopeful. The pose of pessimism had not been popularly adopted, and there were still those among the German novelists who believed that the problems of life could be solved by courage, audacity, and youth. Fritz von Uhde, the painter, who died about the same time, at the age of sixty-three, began life as a historical and *genre* painter of unusual correctness in matters of technique. His unconventional conceptions of Biblical stories made no small sensation both in German and French art. These ancient stories gained a certain effectiveness through the medium of modern settings and of interpretation in the modern spirit. Readers of The Outlook will perhaps remember "The Wise Men from the East," in the Magdeburg Museum, and "Suffer Little Children to Come Unto Me," in the Leipsic Museum. The whole intellectual climate has changed in Germany since Spielhagen and Uhde began their work. They belong to the days of infancy compared with the disillusioned, end-of-the-world writers and painters of to-day.

ANTONIO FOGAZZARO

The death of Fogazzaro has stirred all Italy. For Fogazzaro has occupied the first place among modern Italian novelists. His pre-eminence was due, not merely to his creative power, but to the nobility of sentiment dominating his productions, and to the fact that his novels marked the turning-point dividing naturalistic from psychological fiction. Antonio Fogazzaro was born at Vicenza in 1842. He took up the practice of law, but soon turned from it to the profession of letters. His first work was "Miranda," a romance in verse, and his first prose novel, "Malombra." In both of them he lavishes poetic imagination to excess. His innate poetical spirit vitalized every later work, but he expressed himself with an appealing restraint. To this quality he added a keen observation, humor, benevolence, wide sympathy, and a restless striving to attain ultimate truth, no matter what lay in the way. This last-named quality was of service to the State, for Fogazzaro, an honored member of the Italian Senate, sketched Italian political conditions to the life, especially in "Daniele Cortis," in character-drawing the best of all his novels. But the best known are the three constituting a trilogy—"Piccolo Mondo Antico," "Piccolo Mondo Moderno," and "Il Santo," published in English under the titles "The Patriot," "The Sinner," and "The Saint." Of these, from the standpoint of the historical, the first is the most notable. It instantly challenges comparison with Manzoni's "I Promessi Sposi," not only in the reproduction of a historic picture, in the analysis of the psychic evolution of the lovers, but also in a certain delicate, delicious humor, and in the moral teaching accompanying each event, yet never tiresomely emphasized. "Il Santo," however, caused more comment than did any of Fogazzaro's other eighteen books; for, more vividly than do they, it describes the struggle in Italy between Christian democracy and the Roman hierarchy. The Vatican censors—the Congregation of the Index—placed it upon the "Index Librorum Prohibitorum." As a devout and dutiful son of the Church, Fogazzaro then wrote to a friend: "I have resolved to give to the decree that obedience which is my duty as a Catholic; that is to say, not to discuss it and not to work in contradiction to it by authorizing other translations and reprints besides those which were contracted for before the announcement of the decree." To those who knew Fogazzaro personally and who appreciated his gentle manner and refined appearance, it seemed pathetic that a man of his philosophical and retiring temperament should suddenly find himself a storm-center of criticism of the harshest sort. Yet no

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one, we think, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, whether religious or not, can read "Il Santo" without a feeling that Fogazzaro was in it not so much a novelist as a philosopher, priest, and preacher.

CONCERNING VIVISECTION

The assumption of certain of the anti-vivisection reformers that vivisection is accompanied with needless cruelty requires continual exposure because the assumption is continually repeated. In fact, vivisection has been of incomparable service in protecting human life, preserving humanity from needless suffering, and preventing the spread of human disease. And this vivisection is generally carried on by humane men with the greatest care to prevent needless suffering in the animal world. These men are constantly discussing the various questions which arise relating to the use of animals in experimentation. They bring their expert knowledge to bear on the question how they can devise new methods for the care of animals, can ascertain the best qualities of food for their use, and can prevent disease among the animals which at the same time cause them needless suffering and destroy valuable property and nullify valuable experiments. These experimental workers are not only humane, but they are clever and resourceful in searching out, in their scientific use of animals, how to reduce pain, discomfort, and sacrifice of human life. These facts are illustrated by the following code of rules regarding animals, which have been adopted by the Committee on Research Defense of the American Medical Association, which have been sent to every research laboratory in the country, and which are habitually, if not universally, observed in laboratory investigation:

RULES REGARDING ANIMALS

I. Vagrant dogs and cats brought to this laboratory and purchased here shall be held at least as long as at the city pound and shall be returned to their owners if claimed and identified.

II. Animals in the laboratory shall receive every consideration for their bodily comfort; they shall be kindly treated, properly fed, and their surroundings kept in the best possible sanitary condition.

III. No operations on animals shall be made except with the sanction of the director of the laboratory, who holds himself responsible for the importance of the problems studied and for the propriety of the procedures used in the solution of these problems.

IV. In any operation likely to cause greater discomfort than that attending anæsthetization the animal shall first be rendered incapable of perceiving pain and shall be maintained in that condition until the operation is ended.

V. Exceptions to this rule will be made by the director alone, and then only when anæsthesia would defeat the object of the experiment. In such cases an anæsthetic shall be used so far as possible and may be discontinued only so long as is absolutely essential for the necessary observations.

VI. At the conclusion of the experiment the animal shall be killed painlessly. Exceptions to this rule will be made only when continuance of the animal's life is necessary to determine the result of the experiment. In that case, the same aseptic precautions should be observed during the operation, and, so far as possible, the same care shall be taken to minimize discomforts during the convalescence as in a hospital for human beings.

DIRECTOR OF THE LABORATORY.

In the presence of these facts, objections to vivisection, as generally practiced in the laboratories of the United States, seem to us explicable only on the ground that objectors are either ignorant of the facts, or controlled in their action not by humane consideration but by sentimentalism.

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF METALS

Some years ago scientific men in Russia were astonished to find that some bars of pure tin which had lain a long time in a warehouse had turned from a white metal into a pile of gray powder. An analysis of the powder showed it to be as pure tin as were the bars. Scientists were unable to determine the cause of this disintegration, and researches have been carried on ever since in an endeavor to ascertain it. Professor Ernest Cohen, of the University of Utrecht, published the result of his researches in "La Technique" in 1910. He found that the "disease" was not confined to pig tin, but occasionally attacked organ pipes of tin, and that the same cause, or something similar, produced disintegrations in lead and copper, and in their alloys. He was unable to determine the

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cause, but found that the action took place only within certain circumscribed temperatures; that by keeping the tin at a very low temperature for a long time it was gradually converted into the gray powder, and conversely, that by keeping the gray powder at a temperature of about eighty degrees for some time it returned to the normal white condition. He found likewise that the change in other metals was due to an alteration from an amorphous into a crystalline condition; but, in his researches, he discovered the most interesting facts—that the tin especially might resist the action of the low temperature unless "inoculated" with some of the gray powder; that as soon as the tin was brought in contact with some of the powder the metal began to swell and to disintegrate, and that the "disease" extended until the whole mass was changed; and that the process was strangely like that of "infection," which gives rise to some of the diseases of plants and animals. Experimenting with other metals, he found that if the product of their alteration came in contact with sheets of copper or lead or polished rolls or many alloys, the disintegration commenced at the point of contact, and rapidly extended, and that this took place at any temperature. Professor Cohen recommended that valuable metallic objects in museums, etc., should be carefully inspected from time to time, and that if any indicated that they were "infected" they should be immediately removed from the case containing other metals, and that, as temperature has much to do with the phenomena, it should not be allowed to fall below seventy degrees. In the article entitled "The Search for the Origin of Life," which was published in The Outlook of December 31, 1910, the writer, Dr. Ledoux, mentioned the fact that the processes of crystallization and of amorphous growth in mineral substances in some cases resembled very closely the process of growth of organic matter through cell multiplication. It would seem from the latest report of Professor Cohen, which is published in a recent number of the French journal "Métaux et Alliages," that no created thing is immune from "disease," considered independently of the ordinary chemical processes of oxidation, reduction, etc.

NATIONALISM AND THE JUDICIARY

*This editorial concludes Mr. Roosevelt's discussion of the Judiciary. It will be followed by editorials on "Nationalism and Democracy" and "Nationalism and International Relations."—*THE EDITORS.

In the Knight Sugar Case, treated in last week's Outlook, the Supreme Court decided against popular rights because against the right of the people of the United States, acting through the Government of the United States, to deal with a matter of vital concern, as to which the Constitution had clearly conferred exclusive power on the National Government. In the New York Bakeshop Case the Court decided against the principle of popular rights under the guise of deciding against the right of a State to act.

In this decision the Court by a bare majority of one upset a law regulating the hours of labor under unhygienic conditions, and they did this in the name of liberty of contract. All I have to say in this matter, all that I said last fall in my address to the Denver Legislature, has been said, in stronger language than I have used, by the Justices of the Supreme Court themselves. In the Supreme Court of the United States in October last Mr. Justice Holmes delivered the opinion of the Court on a matter affecting the laws of the State of Oklahoma, and in the course of his opinion he stated the general policy as follows:

> We must be cautious about pressing the broad words of the Fourteenth Amendment to a dryly logical extreme. Many laws which it would be vain to ask the Court to overthrow could be shown, easily enough, to transgress a scholastic interpretation of one or another of the great guarantees in the Bill of Rights. They more or less limit the liberty of the individual or they diminish property to a certain extent. We have few scientifically certain criteria of legislation, and as it often is difficult to mark the line where what is called the police power of the States is limited by the Constitution of the United States, judges should be slow to read into the latter a *nolumus mutare* as against the lawmaking power. . . . It may be said in a general way that the police power extends to all the great public needs. *It may be put forth in aid of what is sanctioned by usage, or held by the prevailing morality or strong and preponderant opinion to be greatly and immediately*

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necessary to the public welfare. [The italics are mine.]

In Roscoe Pound's article on "Liberty of Contract," in the "Yale Law Journal" for May, 1909, he speaks of the effort to realize true human justice through law as "the sociological movement in jurisprudence, the movement for the adjustment of principles and doctrines to the human conditions they are to govern rather than to assume first principles, the movement for putting the human factor in the central place and relegating logic to its true position as an instrument." In his article he takes up case after case of perversion of justice through insistence by the courts on an academic instead of a real liberty of contract. When he comes to speak of this particular Bakeshop Case, he says: "In Lochner vs. New York, a bare majority of the Supreme Court of the United States took a reactionary view, as it had fairly become by this time, of a statute prescribing the hours of labor in bakeries;" and he sums up the case as follows, in comment upon the decision of Mr. Justice Peckham:

It will be seen that this opinion assumes two propositions of fact: (1) That the public has no concern in how long a baker works, because the time he works has no effect on the product of his labor; (2) that there is nothing in the trade of baking, as carried on in large cities, inimical to the health of those who are employed in it for long hours at a stretch. Here again study of the facts has shown that the Legislature was right and the Court was wrong. Actual investigation has shown that the output of shops in which the only kind of men who can be had to work for unreasonable hours under unsanitary conditions are employed is not at all what the public ought to eat, and that long hours in shops of the sort are distinctly injurious to health. But the decisive objection to the position of the majority is put by Mr. Justice Holmes in a few sentences that deserve to become classical: "This case is decided upon an economic theory which a large part of the country does not entertain. If it were a question whether I agree with that theory, I should desire to study it further and long before making up my mind. But I do not conceive that to be my duty, because I strongly believe that *my agreement or disagreement has nothing to do with the right of a majority to embody their opinions in law. . . . The Fourteenth Amendment does not enact Mr. Herbert Spencer's Social Statics. . . . A constitution is not intended to embody a particular economic theory*, whether of paternalism and the organic relation of the citizen to the State or of *laissez faire. It is made for people of fundamentally differing views*, and the accident of our finding certain opinions natural and familiar or novel and even shocking ought not to conclude our judgment upon the question whether statutes embodying them conflict with the Constitution of the United States."

Sir Frederick Pollock, the great English lawyer, commented on the case as follows: "How can the Supreme Court at Washington have conclusive judicial knowledge of the conditions affecting bakeries in New York? If it has not such knowledge as matter of fact, can it be matter of law that no conditions can reasonably be supposed to exist which would make such an enactment Constitutional?" In concluding his article, Mr. Pound writes as follows:

What, then, is the hope for future labor legislation? On the whole, one must say that it is bright. Not only do the cases last noted afford many means for escape from the line of decisions first considered, but there are indications that the courts are ready to seek such escape. The opinion of Mr. Justice Day in McLean vs. Arkansas especially is fraught with promise of a return on the part of the Federal Supreme Court to its sounder views prior to the Lochner and Adair cases. Even the Court of Appeals of New York has recently approved this significant remark: "Under a judicial system which has for centuries magnified the sacredness of individual rights, there is much less danger of doing injustice to the individual than there is in overlooking the obligations of those in authority to organized society." Possibly the decisions first considered, or some of them, were not without good effect. Doubtless much of the earlier legislation was crude and some of it was premature. But, on the other hand, those decisions wrought an injury to the courts and to the public regard for law, and for Constitutional law in particular, far beyond any incidental good. An acute and well-informed observer said recently: "From my own experience, I should say, perhaps, that the one symptom among workingmen which most definitely indicates a class feeling is a growing distrust of the integrity of the courts, the belief that the present judge has been a corporation attorney, that his sympathies and experience and his whole view of life are on the corporation side." The attitude of many of our courts on the subject of liberty of contract is so certain to be misapprehended, is so out of the range of ordinary understanding, the decisions themselves are so academic and so artificial in their reasoning, that they cannot fail to engender such feelings. Thus, those decisions do an injury beyond the failure of a few acts. These acts can be replaced as legislatures learn how to comply with the

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letter of the decisions and to evade the spirit of them. But the lost respect for courts and law cannot be replaced. The evil of those cases will live after them in impaired authority of the courts long after the decisions themselves are forgotten.

I have quoted at length from this law writer, just as I have quoted at length from other lawyers and from judges, because the representatives of the great capitalistic classes in the press and at the bar have persuaded many good men that in some way I have made improper, or at least revolutionary, attacks upon the Supreme Court. Whether or not I am to be condemned for taking the stand I did is of very small consequence; if it were of consequence, I should be quite content to rest my case on the utterances of the Supreme Court justices and other judges and eminent lawyers above quoted. But the thing that is vitally important is that the people of the United States and the courts should be in proper relation. The people must heartily respect the courts and must realize that ordinarily the court knows more than the people can know of any given case, and must normally without question acquiesce in every judicial decision. Moreover, all public men and publicists must refrain from criticism of the courts unless it is not only true but rendered absolutely necessary by the circumstances of the case. On the other hand, the courts in their turn must understand that in a real and not a conventional or perfunctory or academic sense they are the servants of the people and responsible to the people.

Proposals have been made to secure by the use of the recall, or in other fashion, a more direct popular control of the Federal judiciary. The need that there should be some such control is of course recognized by the existence of the right of impeachment, a right, however, which neither can nor ought to be applied save in the rarest cases. As conservative States as New York and Massachusetts have provided for removing judges on address by a sufficient majority of the two houses of the Legislature, and the right has never been abused; the provision in the New York Constitution was put in by the conservative Constitutional Convention in which Messrs. Choate and Root were the leaders.

In certain States the proposal has been made to require all Federal judges to be elected for short terms. I do not agree with this proposal. Neither do I believe in the recall—using the word in the ordinary sense—as applied to our Federal judges. I do not wish to see steps taken which would hurt the usefulness and dignity of our fine National judiciary. The introduction in principle of the methods for removing judges which are provided in the Constitutions of New York and Massachusetts would, I believe, work well. If this is objected to, then the only alternative is that there shall be full and free and effective criticism of the court whenever the court acts on some great question of policy and principle, as to which the people have a right to decide, and where their decision, and not that of their servants, must ultimately stand. In the Knight Sugar Case, for instance, it is not only the right but the duty of all far-sighted citizens to say that the decision amounted to a partial nullification of one of the most important objects which the Constitution was designed to forward. In the New York Bakeshop Case it is our duty to say that it is for the people of a State to decide whether they intend to be true to the school of political economy of the eighteenth-century individualistic philosophers or whether they intend to act on the principles set forth in such books (to mention two among many) as those by Professor Ross on "Social Control" and by Father Ryan on "A Living Wage." We who on the whole accept the principles set forth in books like these may be right, or we may be wrong, and judges may agree or disagree with us; but if we make up a decisive and permanent majority of the State or Nation, we have a right to try the experiment of putting the principles into practice. I believe with all my heart in the duty of moderation, in the duty of self-restraint and self-mastery, on the part of the people. I feel that when the people are corrupted it is far worse than when any Legislature is corrupted; and I feel that we owe it to ourselves to see that our representatives in executive, in legislative, and, above all, in judicial offices, receive high honor, and that the utmost respect is paid to them when they act conscientiously and fearlessly. It is immensely to

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the popular interest that the judge shall pay heed to his conscience, first of all, and shall show personal independence, no less than broad and generous sympathy with popular needs and wishes. But I also feel that in our country, when a great question of policy arises, and when, not by snap judgment, not by any trick, not in response to any sudden emotion, but as the evident expression of permanent popular will, the people have determined what a given policy is, it should be carried into effect. The men who denounce the free and fair criticism of the judiciary, the frank expression of popular opinion, necessary to produce this result, are themselves doing all in their power to render necessary the adoption of some more direct method of popular control.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THE SIXTY-FIRST CONGRESS

The turmoil, confusion, and inefficiency which marked the closing hours of the Sixty-first Congress ought not to blind the country to a perception of its real character and achievements. In some respects its record is notably good, in others notably bad.

This Congress will probably be longest remembered for its failure to carry out, with regard to the tariff, the expressed purpose of the party by which its majority was elected, and to respond to the manifest desire of the great body of citizens irrespective of party. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill, while it contained many excellent and desirable features, has proved to be distinctly inadequate in its dealing with the policy of protection. The clearest proof of this is that the passage of the bill resulted in the election of a Democratic House and a reduction of the Republican majority in the Senate, so that the new Congress will undoubtedly undertake at least a partial if not an entire revision of the tariff. When President Taft, with a sincere desire to correct some of the evils of the Payne-Aldrich Tariff, endeavored to establish by a treaty with Canada the sound commercial principle of reciprocity in international trade, the Sixty-first Congress, partly from an inability to understand the force of public opinion, partly from the lack of intelligent leadership, partly because it became embroiled in personal wrangles that diverted its attention from great questions of public policy, and partly owing to the pressure of special interests, did not let the question even come to a vote. The course of Congress in tariff legislation has been exceedingly disappointing. The result is that we shall have during the next two years a political situation in Washington which is always unfortunate so far as constructive legislation is concerned—an Executive representing one great party and a House of Representatives representing the other. This appears to us to express the greatest and most serious defect of the Congress whose term expired on March 4. The defeat of the proposed Amendment providing for the popular election of United States Senators cannot be called a failure, because it undoubtedly expressed the sincere conviction of a majority of the Senators, arrived at after due argument and deliberation; but even in this the Senate placed itself in opposition to the popular sentiment of the country. But the failure of Congress to take any action on certain other measures of importance, such as those providing for a Children's Bureau, for Federal control of water powers, for an increase of the Federal power regarding employers' liability and workmen's compensation, and for the promotion of army officers by merit as well as by seniority, was not due to conviction, but to inefficient and loose methods of parliamentary practice. If we add the action of the United States Senate in voting, upon technical grounds, to retain Senator Lorimer, when it was unanimously admitted that his election was tainted in a notorious degree with corruption, we have a record which is not a little disheartening to those who believe in popular representative government.

But this is not the whole of the picture. There is another and more cheering side, which cannot perhaps be better presented than by making a list of some, out of a really surprisingly large number of instances, of the useful achievements of this Congress. It forms an interesting catalogue of good deeds. We name, for example:

The adoption of the principle of a

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tariff commission for the scientific study of tariff questions.

The establishment of practical free trade with the Philippines.

The Corporation Tax Law, another step in the direction of Government supervision of industry.

The establishment of Postal Savings Banks, an achievement of more importance to the country than any other fiscal act since the establishment of National banks.

Legislation strengthening the Inter-State Commerce Commission and increasing its power to regulate railway rates.

The creation of a Commission of marked ability to investigate the capitalization of railways.

Legislation which gives the Inter-State Commerce Commission special powers in investigating railway accidents, thus tending to safeguard the lives of thousands of passengers and employees.

Legislation in support of the principle of Conservation, as, for instance, the placing of Appalachian and White Mountain forests under the protection of the Federal Government.

The creation of a Bureau of Mines to minimize the danger to miners.

Various improvements in the Federal court system and the administration of justice.

Legislation essential to the construction, maintenance, and defense of the Panama Canal.

The enactment into law of executive orders of Presidents Roosevelt and Taft, improving and strengthening our consular and diplomatic service, including a provision for the construction of embassy and legation buildings abroad.

From the point of view of The Outlook, Congress also deserves credit for declining to enact certain proposed bills. Among these, a bill creating a ship subsidy, a bill increasing the expenditure for military pensions by over fifty million dollars a year, and a bill transferring the controversy on the Cunningham claims in Alaska from the Department of the Interior to the courts, failed to pass.

In large measure, the sins of omission committed by this Congress were due to the increasing tendency to crowd important matters into the last days of the session. Then, by protracted and tricky filibustering, against which in the Senate especially there seems to be no adequate protection through the rules, legislation of the largest consequence and supply bills carrying hundreds of millions of dollars were tossed about amid confusion. Thus Congress actually could not, in some instances, pass laws which its own majority favored, and men of normally small influence obstructed the real will of the people and the legislators. There is a warning in this which the Sixty-second Congress should heed.

"YOU CANNOT CHANGE HUMAN NATURE"

So it is often said. But if that is true, Christianity is not true. For the avowed object of Jesus Christ was to change human nature. His whole hope of making this a better and a happier world was based on his belief that men's nature can be changed. "It hath been said, Thou shalt love thy neighbor, and hate thine enemy. But I say unto you, Love your enemies." What is that but a change of nature? "The princes of the Gentiles exercise dominion over them. . . . But whosoever will be great among you, let him be your servant." What is that but a change of nature? That a man's nature may be so radically changed that it may be said of him that he is born again is perhaps the most fundamental doctrine of Christianity.

And Christianity has accomplished, and on a great scale, a change in human nature. Human nature is not the same in democratic America in the twentieth century that it was in Rome in the first century. Worship is not the same in a Christian church that it was in the Temple of Venus, with its hundreds of professional prostitutes. The resemblance between a crowd in a university stadium watching a football game and a crowd in the Roman Coliseum watching a gladiatorial combat is superficial; the contrast is radical. Imagine the modern ladies turning down their thumbs to indicate that the unsuccessful player is to be killed!

And it does not take twenty centuries to make the change. It is made in a lifetime. Mr. George takes a tough out

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of the streets of New York City; he is trained in the George Junior Republic, is fitted for college, graduates with honor, and becomes a self-respecting and valued citizen. This has been done again and again. Does it involve no change in the tough's nature?

A recent report of Professor Franz Boas, of Columbia University, gives definite psychical and physiological refutation to the saying, You cannot change human nature. The Immigration Commission desired to get accurate and authoritative information on the question whether the immigrant population remained essentially foreign or became essentially American. There was a general impression that under the changed conditions they changed their habits of life and their ways of thinking, and thus became Americans. Is this impression justified? And if so, is the change in habit of life and thought accompanied by any real change in character, discernible in physical changes in the body? In order to get light on these questions an investigation was initiated and put under the charge of Professor Boas, a recognized expert. His preliminary report is included in the reports of the Commission. A fuller report is promised later. But enough has already been done to demonstrate the fact that human nature is being changed to-day in America in a remarkable degree—changed not only in habits of life and thought, but in the physical formation of the head, as shown by careful measurements. Thirteen trained observers have been employed in this work. The measurements have been confined to immigrants living in the congested parts of New York City. It is reasonable to suppose that more marked results would be shown if the investigation could be extended into rural populations. They have been mainly confined to Sicilians and East European Hebrews, popularly supposed to be the least subject to American influence. Of the Hebrews, 5,999 individuals have been examined. The result is the discovery of marked changes in the heads of children of these immigrants born in this country as compared with children of the same mothers born in the Old World. The residence of the mother in this country produces a marked effect in the head of the child. "The difference between the foreign-born and those born ten years and more after the arrival of the mother are throughout greater than the differences between the foreign-born and those born less than ten years after the arrival of the mother." And this difference moves in different directions. "The East European Hebrew, who has a very round head, becomes more long-headed; the South Italian, who in Italy has an exceedingly long head, becomes more short-headed; so that both approach a uniform type in this country, so far as the roundness of the head is concerned."

We share with the Immigration Commission the hope that this investigation may be continued. It promises, in our judgment, to have a very important bearing on the problems of public education and criminal reform as well as on that of immigration. It would be both interesting and valuable to have a similar investigation on the Pacific Coast, or in Hawaii, concerning the American-born children of the Chinese and the Japanese. But enough has already been done to justify the conclusion of Professor Boas:

> I think, therefore, that we are justified in the conclusion that the removal of the East European Hebrew to America is accompanied by a marked change in type, which does not affect the young child born abroad and growing up in American environment, but which makes itself felt among the children born in America, even a short time after the arrival of the parents in this country. The change of type seems to be very rapid, but the changes continue to increase; so that the descendants of immigrants born a long time after the arrival of the parents in this country differ more from their parents than do those born a short time after the arrival of the parents in the United States.

Whether these changes in the physical conformation of the head are due to climate, food, or the democratic spirit, or to some other more obscure cause, is a debatable question. Personally, we think that they indicate the truth that spiritual development has power to modify materially the physical organs of the spirit. However that may be, the facts definitely show that we can change human nature, for America is doing it, and, what is remarkable, changing the nature of the child, even in his physical characteristics, and even in the form of the head, which has

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always been regarded as one of the most permanent hereditary features, and making this change in the child by prenatal influence exerted upon him through the mother.

BOSWELL AND GOLDSMITH

The most unpromising figure in the group that listened to Dr. Johnson's aggressive talk was an Irishman; an awkward, grown-up child in the presence of Burke, Reynolds, and Garrick, but a child whose genius has given him a place by himself not only in the writing of his time but in English literature. Posterity is greatly interested in Johnson, stands a good deal in awe of Burke, who was a man of the first order of brain, has a hearty liking for Sir Joshua and his trumpet, but loves Oliver Goldsmith. As a matter of sound Anglo-Saxon judgment, this love is not quite legitimate. If love ought to follow regularity of habit and symmetry of character, Goldsmith has received much to which he was not entitled; for he was a wayward and irresponsible Irishman, who did many things that were reprehensible and left undone many things that are commendable. He was a bohemian Celt in the most highly organized conventionally prudent and moral country in the world. There was a strain of wildness in his taste as well as in his habits; Johnson was abominably careless in dress, Goldsmith would have worn the rainbow complacently if he could have laid hands on it. As it was, he did what he could to run its gayest colors to earth, and light up dirty London streets and somber London drawing-rooms.

Goldsmith was at times a real vagabond; not a picturesque flute-player under a vine in Sorrento, but a shabby wanderer, half-famished, drenched with sudden rains, a victim of the worst fortunes of the open road. But he was always the "beloved vagabond." The plain fact is that we love, not what is admirable, but what is lovable. There are hosts of trustworthy people who keep the law but are never taken to the hearts of their fellows, because they lack the generosity of spirit, the warmth of nature, the capacity for companionship which draws us, not with bands of steel, but with the compelling power of sunlight. Right-thinking, right-feeling, and right-acting people keep the conscience and sanity of the world, but its heart is in the hands of those ardent souls whose sympathy flows like a fountain, whose presence is cheer, and whose capacity for love covers a multitude of faults. The business of life is conducted by the prompt, the methodical, the reliable; but the joy of life, the sense of its freedom and beauty, are largely in the keeping of those who stray through the ways of the world like children in a garden, whose expectation of food and raiment, though often disappointed, never fades into the common day. In an ideal condition perfect sanity of habit and the qualities which draw out our hearts in spite of ourselves will always go together; meantime it must be frankly confessed that they are often miles apart, and that the prodigal gets the inheritance of love while the elder brother gets the colder reward of confidence and respect.

Lovers of Goldsmith, like lovers of Charles Lamb, are not in the habit of explaining or extenuating faults which are so obvious that they are part of the literary tradition; they are content to say, as an American critic said of "Trilby," "It is a book to make the Pharisee love the Publican"—a form of service not too common in society. Nevertheless they will find comfort in the thoroughgoing way in which Mr. Moore deals with Boswell in his recently published "Life of Oliver Goldsmith,"[1] and a deeper sense of sympathy for an ill-starred poet and lover whose heart was wiser than his head in a world in which, unfortunately, hearts are not trumps. Boswell was neither regular nor generous; he wrote an immortal biography, but he was both a boor and a bore, and often a sot. He had one great admiration; but, if Mr. Moore is right, he was guilty of incredible meanness of nature and of persistent and malicious falsehood. In building up a great memorial to Johnson he incidentally amused himself by maligning a greater than Johnson. As a result of a critical study of impressions of Goldsmith conveyed by other contemporaries like Fanny Burney and Mrs. Thrale, Mr. Moore is

[1] The Life of Oliver Goldsmith. By Frank Frankfort Moore. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

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convinced that Boswell systematically misrepresented Goldsmith by suppression of facts, by distortion, and by putting into his mouth the words of others. If Boswell is to be believed, the author of "The Vicar of Wakefield" was a coxcomb, a liar, a braggart, a plagiarizer, and a hypocrite. And the meanness of the attack lies in the fact that it is put in the mouth of Johnson himself, who asked, three months after Goldsmith's death, "Was ever poet so trusted before?" Everybody trusted him; those who appealed to him for help, and those, in turn, to whom he appealed.

Boswell was the last man of his time to understand Goldsmith. He was of the type of Scotchman to whom the generous, easy-going Celtic way of taking the world as a special provision for the support of the ardent and generous who lack the practical sense was abhorrent and even incomprehensible. The charm of Goldsmith's wit and sentiment was lost on him, while its effect on others infuriated him; and Goldsmith's rise to fame and the magic which drew all hearts to him must have awakened bitter jealousy.

The situation was tragic for the generous, volatile, careless young Irishman whose genius was the rarest of his time, and who was helpless in the hands of a merciless reporter of unscrupulous mind, bent on making all things subsidiary to one central figure, and whose colossal vanity suffered no rivals in Johnson's affection. It is an extraordinary tribute to the personality of Goldsmith that, while his obvious faults of life have never been ignored, the evil qualities with which Boswell endowed him have failed to confuse the instinct which has rested in the childlike goodness of his heart while fully aware of the childlike irresponsibility of his career.

Goldsmith came of an improvident country and an improvident family, and never, under any circumstances, could have been other than a borrower to whom the day of payment was always an Irish adaptation of the Spanish "to-morrow." Poverty and wealth would have been alike to him; if he had had more money, he would have given more away; not a pound would have stayed by him. His gayety was inextinguishable, as his misfortunes were interminable; the debtors' prison could not destroy the first, nor could the Bank of England have kept him permanently in funds. His inability to deal with life on the practical side was simply grotesque; to attach moral responsibility to him is absurd.

The delicate genius which gave the world those classics of unaffected and tender simplicity, "The Deserted Village" and "The Vicar of Wakefield," and the spontaneous and charming wit which gave us "She Stoops to Conquer" and "The Good-Natured Man," needed to make the world no other payment for such care as it bestowed on Goldsmith. He paid the price of his open-heartedness, his open-handedness, and his childlike innocence of practical sagacity. His life, which had a fountain-like quality of joy and hope in its depths, was touched with a heart-breaking pathos of loneliness, homelessness, and privation. But when the news of his death came, Burke burst into tears, Reynolds laid down his brushes, left his painting-room, and spent the day in solitude; Johnson mourned for him to the day of his death; and when, sixty years later, the Jessamy Bride was laid to rest, there was found in her possession a small gold locket in which she had kept a lock of Goldsmith's hair. To those who love greatly not only shall much be forgiven, but they shall have love in overflowing measure.

THE SPECTATOR

Collecting, in all its multiform branches, has always possessed for the Spectator a sovereign fascination. He supposes that, counting from the days when he pursued picture-cards in sets down to his present absorbing mania for United States copper cents, he has collected more kinds of things than any other man living. Certainly he has collected more things than Mrs. Spectator's housewifely soul has found strictly desirable, more even than he himself knew what to do with. He remembers how one summer when he was idling on the Connecticut shore, trying to recover from a more than ordinarily severe case of editorial fag, somebody put him up to collecting "garnets" from the sands of the Sound!

It must have been an edifying sight, the Spectator propped on his elbows, face

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downward, on the sand, seriously combing the beach through his fingers in eager search for certain tiny clear red stones, which he carefully treasured in a pill-bottle. All the same it is a pursuit which the Spectator confidently recommends to any wretched victim of neurasthenia. So soothing in the sense of righteous accumulation, so peacefully occupying to the mind! That pill-bottle, however, was just one of the things the Spectator never knew what to do with. When he discovered that no child could be found young enough to take an interest in his vial with its glitter of little red gems, he became distinctly sensitive about it. He believes that finally he found for it oblivion in the lively waters of the North River.

Considering the mortifying tendency of collections to clutter the abode of the collector, the Spectator surveys his newest hobby with peculiar delight. For it takes literally no room at all. People are not always clamoring to be allowed to consign it to the ash-heap or to present it to the washerwoman's children. He keeps it stored in an inner recess of his own capacious intellect. For his latest fad is the collection of the tricks and manners of his fellow-men. For example, for a twelvemonth past he has been gathering data about other people's Carcassonnes, other people's visions of the unattainable. The poem is in the back of everybody's head:

"A dream I had when life was new.
. . . . . .
Alas! our dreams! they come not true.
I thought to see fair Carcassonne.
. . . . . .
Who has not had his Carcassonne?"

These cherished secret enthusiasms of ours on which we lavish so much more thought than upon the things that count in terms of success or fame, or even of dollars and cents, what a curious collection they make, humorous and yet pathetic! "I've always wanted—" When a man begins like that, the Spectator pricks up his ears to see what queer, incongruous thing this fellow-mortal has set his heart on.

Something remote from what he has, of course. The man who writes masterly detective stories is sure in his heart that nature intended him for a font of lyric poetry. The woman to whom fortune has apportioned the lot of homely comforter to a brood of fledglings large and small believes that she might have had a brilliant career upon the operatic stage. But these are commonplaces. Permit the Spectator to present some of the high novelties of his collection.

He was assisting the other day at the unpacking of a windfall—the antique library of a good friend's deceased grandfather. Among the dusty books was a file of the "Country Gentleman" from 1857. Dipping at random into the quaint volumes, the Spectator was moved to remark: "But I thought your grandfather was a lawyer. Did he indulge in agriculture on the side?" His friend looked up with a tender smile. "Oh, no," said he. "That was one of grandfather's nicest oddities. He never touched a spade in his life, nor any other tool, for that matter. Had hands long and fine, like a lady's. And he never made any proxy experiments with farming, or even gardening. But the 'Country Gentleman' was his Gospel. He knew it by heart. He could discuss the virtues of osage orange hedges and subsoil drainage like the veriest farmer. In fact"—with a rueful laugh of reminiscence—"he did discourse on them, in season and out of season, to any reluctant listener he could buttonhole." "Doubtless," suggested the Spectator, "it was a case of the city man longing for the soil." "Not a bit of it," replied his friend. "That was the richness of the thing. All the while grandfather was poring over the 'Country Gentleman,' the thirteen workable acres of his village estate were lying waste about him. A country lawyer in those days was not pushed with work. But the nearest grandfather ever got to tilling the soil was one spring when he had a field plowed up, bought a sack of corn, carried it out, and deposited it, unopened, in the furrows. The spring rains soaked the sack, the summer suns baked it, and finally the snows of winter buried it out of sight. Oh, no, grandfather was never anything but an agricultural dreamer. But it was his lifelong satisfaction and resource. I suppose,

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if he had gone into it practically, the glamour would have gone."

The dream's the thing. To realize is to destroy it. It is this which takes the heartache out of other people's Carcassonnes. One knows that the longing is really more wistful pleasure than pain. The Spectator knows a tired city oculist whose dream it is to turn for a season journeyman photographer. His idea is to buy him a covered spring-wagon and tour the inner fastnesses of rural New England on the lookout for human types. His profession brings him people, but always people on a formal plane, always people viewed in the same light, with skeleton goggles on their noses, their eyes screwed up, and their natural vivacity strained in the effort conscientiously to discriminate between lenses. He wants to refresh himself by unconstrained relations with country folk with natural flavor about them. He believes the camera and the cart would make him young again.

Within a stone's throw of this man's office lives a surgeon with quite another notion of bliss. When he thinks of himself realizing his life's desire, he sees himself crawling on all fours into the dark mouth of an African cave, following a creeping native who bears a torch. His nerves are strung deliciously taut, his eyes straining into the blackness ahead for two burning points of feline fire—the eyes of an angry lion! Maybe this man's dream ought not to be classed as a rarity. But so far is it from *his* Carcassonne that the Spectator can no more believe in it than he can understand why a certain cherubic-looking church tenor should confess to an ambition to become lion-tamer for Bostock or Hagenbeck.

Take a widely different case. In the town where the Spectator passed his young manhood lived a plain little maiden lady of fifty or more who was known for a blending of wisdom and piety. Half philanthropist, half bluestocking, she commanded the Spectator's sincere, if remote, regard. After the death of this austere little personage, her seamstress rather brutally betrayed the secret ambition of her life, which was, forsooth, to become a leader of fashion! The poor soul—for her purse was lean—had lain awake o' nights considering how to keep her bits of gowns in the height of the Paris mode. It was said that she always cannily postponed her annual season with the dressmaker until after the New York Horse Show, that she might have the latest word on sleeves! Meanwhile not a word to a soul, save to the faithless seamstress. The friends who knew her best never suspected that she bestowed upon her cheap little costumes more than a condescending attention. If asked which of all the worthies of time, living or dead, Miss Pettigrew would have cared most to meet, they would have said, without hesitation, John Stuart Mill. In which they greatly erred. Miss Pettigrew would have been distinctly interested in the shade of John Stuart Mill. But she would have given the eyes out of her head for a glimpse of the great wizard in cloth, Worth, of Paris. Which only goes to show what children we are in our hearts.

It would be a pity to regard Miss Pettigrew's story as a sad one. Her little vanities furnished the secret zest of a not very high-savored life. However, to obliterate the tinge of melancholy, here's the comfortable case of Miss Marsh. A lone spinster, but not a bit "lorn," her capable finger was briskly stirring in every beneficent civic pie. In pure food campaigns, milk crusades, anti-tuberculosis projects, and plots to feed school-children, none so active as she. Her sleeping hours and the few she allowed herself for leisure were spent in one boarding-house after another, for she was quite without family attachments. And her hobby? The collection of choice recipes! No, she had not so much as a chafing-dish in her rooms. She just collected recipes. Her note-book would have made the fortune of some lucky contributor to a woman's monthly. Allowed to delve into the delightfully suggestive pages of this toothsome volume, Mrs. Spectator one day burst out, "Oh, Miss Marsh! Why *don't* you have a little housekeeping suite of your own and treat yourself to a debauch of fancy cooking? How you would revel in a kitchenette!" But Miss Marsh was wise in her day and

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generation. "My dear," said she, "I should tire of recipes in a week. You cannot have your dream and eat it too!"

The Spectator can well understand that himself. One watermelon lives in his fancy. What a melon, round and firm, vividly green without, the color of concentrated sunsets within! A melon he remembers tasting? Friends, it was a melon which came out to meet him as he lay quarantined in New York Harbor during the cholera scare of '92. A melon which the ruthless ship's doctor ordered sternly ashore. As the laden fruit-barge drew away from the steamer's side one special striped beauty in the mound on deck imprinted itself indelibly upon the Spectator's heart. It remains, and will remain, *the* melon of the world for him.

THE LAST DAYS OF CONGRESS

STAFF CORRESPONDENCE

WHO killed Cock Robin? Who put to death the Tariff Board Bill, the measure desired by the Administration, the majority in both houses of Congress, and the country—a measure important in itself, but much more important as a symbol? Let us see.

It is the morning of the 4th of March. In less than three hours the Sixty-first Congress will have passed into history, and with it, for the first time in sixteen years, the Republican control of the lower branch of the National Legislature. For twenty-four hours the House has been in session. In session, but not at work, for the House has performed its duties promptly, and now is only waiting for the ponderous and unwieldy machinery of the Senate to grind out the grist to which the two houses in conference must give the final refining touch. Through the night faithful members of both parties in the House have held the fort, passing the time with speeches from retiring veterans and budding orators, with singing, marked by wonderful "close harmony" and heart-piercing "barber-shop" chords, and with mild skylarking.

But, now at the eleventh hour, with less than two hundred minutes left of the session (even including the thirty or forty which a dying Congress is used to take forcible possession of by turning back the clock), both sides are girding themselves for a last struggle. One controversial measure remains to be fought over. The Democratic minority show no disposition to hold up the great appropriation bills, but they have served notice that they have no intention of allowing the Tariff Board Bill to become law if they can help it. The question is, Can they help it? The bill has passed the House days before by a substantial majority. In the Senate it has been the object of determined opposition, and its course has been obstructed by a determined filibuster, but at half-past eight this last morning it has been brought to a vote and passed. But the Senate has added two amendments to the bill, and it must be passed again by the House. The Republican majority—with a preponderance of at least fifty votes—is united in favor of it. Manifestly it is the will of a majority of the House that the bill shall become law; but the minority have at their disposal sundry weapons in the shape of parliamentary devices. So here are the materials for a very pretty conflict—a substantial majority plus the rules on one side, a determined minority plus the rules plus the slipping minutes on the other.

The main resource of the majority in the House is the Rules Committee. So at this juncture the Chairman of that Committee brings in a rule providing that the Tariff Board Bill with the Senate amendments shall be immediately considered, without regard to any pending business and without debate. With such a rule the majority must surely have its way. But will it?

As the rule is brought in, the House is in confusion. The oblong chamber, with its concentric, semicircular rows of school-desks for nearly four hundred members, is no place for orderly debate, hardly a

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place for the decent and intelligent transaction of public business. It is too vast, the distances are too great; and the members, influenced doubtless by the physical characteristics of their surroundings, feel too little constrained to attention and orderliness. From the knots and groups of Congressmen scattered over the chamber rises a continuous hum and buzz of conversation; the aisles are filled with members moving up and down and standing about. The stereotyped phrase of the Speaker, punctuated by the nervous fall of the ivory gavel, "The House will be in order!" sounds like a sterile prophecy, an impotent admonition. The House will not be in order unless it pleases, and it takes an extraordinarily intense moment or an extraordinarily dull one to make it please.

(Be it noted, that when the Sixty-second Congress meets in regular session next December, all this will be changed. The desks are to go, the members to be drawn closer together, and a premium put, not upon indulgence in private conversation and personal business, but upon devotion to the function of legislation, with which, in theory, the House is primarily charged.)

As he presents the rule, the Chairman of the Committee moves the previous question upon it, the adoption of which would have the effect of shutting off debate. The majority is determined to give a last demonstration of "steam-roller" methods in its finest manner. But on the Democratic side a member whose mild look and youthful appearance hardly give evidence of his ability as a parliamentarian and a fighter, interposes first one, then another, then another, motion to delay action. For the minority cannot defeat the bill by votes (they have not got them); they must defeat it by obstruction and delay. But the Speaker, swinging the gavel vigorously in a sinewy left hand, stamps every motion as "dilatory" and rules them all out of order. A roll-call is the final resource of the opposition, for a roll-call in the House consumes at least forty minutes, and the relentless hands of the clock are the minority's best ally. The "yeas and nays" are ordered and the clerk calls the roll. In an atmosphere of rapidly rising excitement the previous question is ordered—for the majority have the votes. As the vote is being announced, a conference report is presented on the General Deficiency Bill. This is one of the big appropriation bills which must be passed before adjournment if the Government is to have money with which to "carry on." Conference reports on appropriation bills have the right of way, and the minority transfer their attentions to it. The excitement has become pandemonium. The space before the Speaker's chair and the desks of the clerks is filled with a throng of members, some trying, at the top of their lungs, to make sure that their votes have been properly recorded on the roll-call just ended, others endeavoring, at the top of their lungs, to register points of order and dilatory motions against the impending vote, others, at the top of their lungs, just enjoying themselves. The Speaker's arm works like a flail, his voice shrills out demands for order and rulings against every dilatory suggestion. The sergeant-at-arms, "the mildest-mannered man that ever scuttled ship or cut a throat," takes the mace, emblem of the awful dignity of the House, and advances into the riot, with an effect entirely incommensurate with the solemn significance of his action. The clerk calls the roll, and the Deficiency Bill is passed—for the majority have the votes. But the precious minutes are being eaten up, all too swiftly. Roll-calls are powerful weapons of offense when time is short.

Then the roll-call on the rule itself begins and proceeds, to an accompaniment of tempest and riot. Once ended, it is recapitulated by the clerk, for dozens of members have not heard their names and are besieging the clerk's desk, clamoring for a chance to vote. The rule is adopted, of course—for the majority have the votes.

Then the Tariff Board Bill itself, which days before had been enacted by the House with the aid of nearly twoscore Democratic votes, comes before the House. But not to be voted on yet a while. The minority have another arrow in their quiver. The young parliamentarian—Mr. Fitzgerald, of New York—moves to recommit the bill with the Senate amendments to the Committee on Ways and Means. On the Republican side points of order bristle like the hedgehog's quills. The Speaker, imperturbable and

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inflexible, consults his precedents, hears both sides on the point of order, and rules that the motion is in order. One more point scored for the minority. (Perhaps there is a little of the irony of things in the fact that the Speaker's last ruling of a long and despotic career is against his own party and in favor of the despised minority. But then again perhaps "Uncle Joe" is not so sorry to see the Tariff Board Bill, of which he has not been one of the most enthusiastic advocates, jeopardized.) Again the clerk calls the roll, in comparative quiet. The situation has become too tense for disorder. Twenty, thirty names have been called when the Republican leader, Mr. Payne, walks down the aisle, addresses the Speaker, and, on behalf of the majority, throws up the sponge. There is not sufficient time to pass the bill before twelve o'clock, and two appropriation bills remain for final action. The majority surrenders.

So the Tariff Board Bill, in spite of the best efforts of a strong and united majority, is beaten by the Democrats. Or rather by the Democrats in alliance with the inexorable hands of the clock. For you can easily see that, with another hour or so to spare, the "steam-roller" of the majority could have crushed flat every obstruction that ingenuity could desire. Who killed Cock Robin? The Democrats? Perhaps.

That is the way they do things in the House. Legislation by steam-roller, tempered by the time limit, one might call it; or, shifting the point of view, legislation by riot, subject to the mailed fist.

But what of the Senate? To traverse the length of the Capitol from the popular chamber to the upper house is like walking from a boiler factory into a Quaker meeting. Outwardly in the Senate all is quiet, dignified, orderly, restrained. Apparently the methods of legislation are those not of warfare but of peace, apparently the victory on any disputed point goes not to the heaviest battalions but to the strongest case. On the surface there is no evidence of such a tyranny as forces legislation through the House at the will of the majority. But perhaps if we look we may find a tyranny more hopeless than that of the House because it is vastly more irresponsible.

It is shortly after one o'clock of the morning of March 4. The business before the Senate is the ratification of the Constitution of the new State of New Mexico. Several brief speeches have been made in favor of the measure, when the Senator from Oklahoma rises to address the Senate. He opposes the ratification unless the Constitution of the sister State, Arizona, shall be ratified at the same time. Mr. Owen wants both States admitted at the same time, but there are plenty of Senators who will not have Arizona's Constitution, with its horrific provisions of initiative, referendum, and recall (recall of judges, at that!), at any price. The majority manifestly wants to admit New Mexico here and now, but Mr. Owen, constituting one-ninety-second of the body, is not willing, and wishes to be heard before the vote is taken. "I have much to say on this question," says the Senator; "it will take a good many hours." This, under the polite usage of the Senate, is a formula for announcing a "filibuster," for warning his colleagues that a vote shall not be taken until the Senator making the threat has exhausted either the time available or his own endurance. For in the Senate a vote may not be taken while any Senator wishes to speak on a question. The famed "courtesy of the Senate" requires perfect freedom of debate, perfect liberty on the part of any Senator to hold up the transaction of business to the limit of his resources.

So the Senator from Oklahoma has the floor, and nothing may be done until he yields it. For four hours he holds it, until in the gray dawn a recess is ordered until seven o'clock. But does he speak steadily for those four hours? Oh, no, not at all. He merely holds the floor, while routine business goes on around him in a steady flow. Always, however, by his august permission, for he has the floor.

Conference reports on appropriation bills are presented, debated, and adopted, bills are reported from committees, debated and voted upon, joint resolutions are considered, the Senate goes into executive session for over an hour to confirm appointments, messages from the President and from the House of Representatives are received and acted upon, and all the while

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the Senator from Oklahoma has the floor, and the one matter which he is determined to block cannot be brought up. The formula runs like this:

Mr. HALE. Mr. President—

The VICE-PRESIDENT. Does the Senator from Oklahoma yield to the Senator from Maine?

Mr. OWEN. I do.

Mr. HALE. I present the conference report on the sundry civil appropriation bill.

The VICE-PRESIDENT. The report will be read.

The report is read, discussed, and acted upon, and the Senator from Oklahoma resumes his speech, only to yield to the next Senator who wishes to bring up some other non-controversial matter. The Senator holds the floor for four hours, and again after the recess for another hour, but in the course of that time he speaks for perhaps fifteen minutes. But two things have been satisfied—the "courtesy of the Senate" and the Senator's desire to prevent action on the New Mexico Constitution. The fact that a majority of the Senate wants to enact that particular piece of legislation is apparently negligible in comparison with those two considerations—this fetish of "courtesy" and the obstinacy of a single one among the ninety-two members of the Senate. Is not this tyranny, and irresponsible tyranny at that? How has this irresponsible tyranny worked at this last session of the Sixty-first Congress? What are its fruits? Perhaps in the answer to this question lies hidden the answer to the question, Who killed Cock Robin?

A week before the session ended, the House, moving with the ease of a smoothly meshed and well-oiled machine, had passed all the important legislation before it. It only remained for the Senate to act, and for the two houses to resolve any differences that might arise between them. The Senate had before it the question of the election of William Lorimer, the Tariff Board Bill, and the big appropriation bills. The way of all these measures was blocked by the first two, which disputed for precedence. The "Regular" Republicans were determined that a vote should be had on the Lorimer case, the Democrats were determined to block a vote on the Tariff Board Bill, the "Insurgents" were determined that there should be no vote on the Lorimer case unless there was a vote on the Tariff Board—and the appropriation bills *must* be passed. Exhausting filibusters—straining the tradition of Senatorial "courtesy" to the snapping point—were maintained against the two controversial measures, while the supply bills meekly waited the outcome of the "shindy." At last the Republican leaders, anxious not to have the money bills wait too long and perhaps fall by the way, and feverishly desirous of getting a vote on the Lorimer case, delivered themselves into the hands of the Insurgents. An agreement was made that the Insurgents' filibuster against the Lorimer case would be given up, and that the Regular Republicans would "pitch in" and do their utmost to help the Insurgents pass the Tariff Board Bill. The bargain was struck, a vote taken on the Lorimer case, Lorimer retained his seat (though forty of his fellow-Senators recorded their belief that his election had been so corrupt as not to entitle him to his seat), and the struggle for a vote on the Tariff Board continued. A few Democrats, relying still upon the famous "courtesy," kept up their filibuster, but in the early morning hours of Thursday, by a keen parliamentary maneuver, their flank was turned, and a vote ordered for Saturday morning at half-past eight.

When Saturday morning came, the bill was passed, with two minor amendments, but too late. In the House the minority whetted their knives, and Cock Robin was slain. But who killed him? The blades were the blades of the House's minority, but the treachery which exposed his breast to the stroke was "the courtesy of the Senate." Doubtless the supineness and procrastination of the Senate leaders, which delayed action on the appropriation bills until a woefully late hour, helped on the betrayal. But in the last analysis it was the filibuster—the fine flower of Senatorial courtesy—which allowed a minority in the House to kill a measure upon which the Administration, the majority in both houses, and the country were united. If the riotous close of the Sixty-first Congress showed anything, it showed that the United States

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Senate needs new rules. It showed that "the courtesy of the Senate" is an outworn fetish, that "legislation by unanimous consent" may be a charming ideal, but that it will not work. The Senate needs a new code of procedure which will allow the will of the majority, after making every proper allowance for the rights of the minority, to be promptly and efficiently enforced.

At this point it occurs to me that I have not mentioned a measure in which the whole country has manifested great interest during the past few weeks. The omission recalls the comment of a Western paper a short time ago upon the activity, or lack of it, of the Insurgent Senator from its State. It said in substance: "We understand that Senator —— is in Washington. We believe there is also in Washington a measure providing for Canadian reciprocity. But, so far as we can learn, they have not met." The bill to carry out the provisions of the reciprocity agreement made with Canada by President Taft passed the House with promptness. But in the last days of the session there was in the Senate the novel and anomalous spectacle of the most important Administration measure utterly ignored and without a friend to champion it. To every appearance, neither Canadian reciprocity nor the Administration had a supporter in the Senate. No effort was made by any one to bring the matter to a vote. Not even the warning of the President that a special session would be called if the matter was not given consideration aroused a single Senator to activity. This condition in the Senate gives point to two comments upon the political history of the last session of the Sixty-first Congress which are universally heard in Washington.

The first comment is that the President is now "playing a lone hand." Early in his Administration he alienated the Progressive element of his party in Congress. His remarkable attempt to discipline them by withholding patronage was hardly redeemed by his even more remarkable action later in acknowledging that he had tried to discipline them and declaring that he would do so no more. But during the first session of this Congress the President worked with the "Regular" Republican leaders in Congress. Now, however, if the signs and the sayings are to be trusted, he is dissatisfied with them and is working in matters of legislation with neither wing of his party. The chief fruit of this policy of "going it alone" is the reciprocity agreement with Canada. But perhaps it would be a truer statement of the case to say that in this matter the President is "going it alone" only so far as Congress is concerned. On Canadian reciprocity as the first step toward a downward revision of the tariff the country is with him and behind him.

The second comment, the truth of which is also borne out by every appearance, is that the Progressive Republicans in Congress have, as a body, done little to strengthen themselves during the present session. In the matter of Canadian reciprocity especially they have missed a great opportunity. The Progressives in Congress are a body of men whom the country has had a right to expect to take a broad, unselfish, patriotic view of any question. They have "insurged," in season and out, against the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill and in favor of a real downward revision of the tariff. The reciprocity agreement with Canada was the first attempt to revise the tariff downward, and the country could only expect the Progressives to take the broad view of the question and uphold the President's hands. Doubtless it was difficult for a Representative or a Senator from the farming States to support a measure whose reductions affected chiefly agricultural products, but there were in the House a few who were big enough to do it. As one of these Progressive Congressmen said in talking of the matter, "I may be met, when I go home, with an elmwood club, but at least I have the satisfaction of knowing that I did not play the local political game." That is just what most of the Progressives have done. They have played the local political game instead of the broad National game, the game of the special interests of their own constituents instead of the game of all the people. It is a matter for deep regret that by so doing they have probably weakened their influence and done no good to the movement which they represented in Congress.

HAROLD J. HOWLAND.

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INDUSTRY AND DEMOCRACY

BY WASHINGTON GLADDEN

THE THIRD OF FIVE ARTICLES BY DR. GLADDEN DEALING WITH PROBLEMS OF LABOR AND CAPITAL

WHAT is commonly called the Labor Question is something more than a problem of economic organization; it deals with all that is most fundamental in the life of the commonwealth. It challenges the postulates of our political science; the answer to it involves the validity of the principles laid down in the Declaration of Independence and the permanency of the Constitution of the United States. To answer it in one way means the surrender of popular government; to answer it in another way means the fulfillment and completion of democracy.

The great fact of the age is Democracy, the coronation of the common man. For the past hundred years he has been steadily coming to his own. Not only in the republics, the United States and France and Switzerland, not only in free England and her colonies, but in all the states described as monarchical, the enfranchisement of the common man has been going forward. The Emperor of Germany, who declares that he rules by the will of God, nevertheless is compelled to ask the common man for the revenues by which he rules; even the Czar of Russia and the Sultan of Turkey have been compelled to stoop to him, and the lords of political privilege everywhere have discovered that there is no stability for the throne that is not "broad-based upon the people's will." Popular government is everywhere in the ascendant, and not only is government of the people, by the people, for the people, not going to perish from the earth, it is going to possess the earth, and that at no distant day. Monarchical forms may linger long, as in England, but the democratic fact will prevail everywhere as it prevails there.

In our own country we have given, in theory, the most unreserved expression to the principle of political democracy; the principle is yet but imperfectly worked out here, as everywhere, and we have much exacting business upon our hands in completing and developing our democratic institutions—work that will call for a great deal of patience and toil and self-denial; but we believe, most of us, in the principle; we have committed ourselves to it, and we expect, by means of it, to unify the diverse races now thronging upon this continent and to make of them a strong, free, self-governing people.

But there is one department of our life, and this the largest interest of all, which has not been democratized. Our industries are still largely on an autocratic or feudalistic basis. We have been trying to correlate a political democracy with an industrial feudalism. They do not work well together. I do not think that they will endure together. They are antagonistic principles. The development of the large system of industry accentuates the antagonism. We may say what Lincoln said of slavery and freedom: the country will become eventually all democratic or all feudalistic. The workingmen will lose their political liberty or they will gain their industrial liberty. I do not think that they will lose their votes; I think that they will gain their right to have a voice in determining what wages they shall receive and under what conditions they shall work.

Let me explain what I mean when I say that the basis of our present industry is feudalistic. I am speaking, of course, of the large system of industry under which the world's work is now mainly done, and I am assuming, also, that there is no organization of the laborers, since that is the condition which industrial feudalism holds up as the ideal and struggles to establish. Under this system the capitalist manager assumes the exclusive right to fix the rate of wages, the hours of labor, the conditions under which the work is done. He cannot, of course, discuss these matters with each of his one thousand or ten thousand workmen; there can, therefore, be no semblance of a bar-

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gain in the case; it is an ultimatum; the employer presents it, the workingman can take it or leave it. It would be absurd for a single laborer to propose to chaffer about wages or hours of labor with the American Steel Corporation or the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. Out of these circumstances very naturally grows the assumption, on the part of the employer, that the right as well as the power to fix the laborer's wages belongs exclusively to him. When, therefore, any man or any body of men proposes to have something to say about it, he indignantly resents this proposal; he calls it interfering with his business. What he says to them is precisely this: "It is none of your business what wages you shall receive; it is my business to tell you how much you can have, and I cannot permit any one to dictate to me about my business."

Of course the employer would say that the workingman, or the group of workingmen, to whom he presents this ultimatum can seek employment elsewhere; but he would also say, if he is morally consistent, that all other employers ought to treat workmen in the same way that he treats them; and if all do, then the workingman's right to have something to say about the wages he shall receive is practically denied. Under such a regimen he becomes a beneficiary, a dependent; reversing Sir Henry Maine's phrase, he has gone back from contract to status; he is not a free man; he has sunk into servitude. This is what I mean when I say that the basis of our present industry is feudalistic.

The workingmen found out, a good while ago, that the only possible way of preserving and enforcing their right of contract in the sale of their labor was by uniting together and insisting on collective bargaining with their employers. If the capitalist manager's one thousand or ten thousand employees unite in presenting their demands, they may succeed in getting some attention to them. By union and organization they may keep themselves from being reduced to a position of dependence and servitude, and may establish their right to a share in the wealth created by their labor and a voice in the distribution of the product of industry.

This means, of course, the recognition of a partnership of the men in the business by which they earn their livelihood; their employer has invested his money in it, and they have invested their lives; they are entitled to such recognition. When this right is recognized, they are not any longer subjects; they are fellow-citizens and freemen; the common man has come to his own in the industrial realm; our democracy has completed itself.

Long ago we gave the common man the right to take part in making the laws of the State and the Nation and in choosing the men who should administer those laws; we let him say who shall be our Presidents and our Governors and our judges; but we have been afraid that it would never do to let him have anything to say about the wages he should receive or the hours he should work. I do not think that this fear is rational; at any rate, the thing that he asks for is his right, and we have got to give him his right and teach him how to use it. And since, under the present industrial system, it is impossible for him to assert and maintain this right without organization, all who love justice and freedom ought to encourage him to organize, and stand by him and see that he gets the fruits of his organization.

There is no other way, I repeat, under the pressure of the stupendous combinations of capital, to rescue labor from degradation except by the firm organization of labor. There is no salvation for our democracy under the wage system but in this concerted resistance of the wage-workers. That they are prone to abuse their power has been fully admitted, and we all know how impossible are some of their methods, and how needful it sometimes is to resist and defeat their aggressions. The acquisition of power by those who have long been deprived of it is apt to be attended by outbreaks of willfulness and arrogance. Patience and firmness will be needed in dealing with such cases. But as soon as we have made up our minds to be just it will be easier to be patient and firm. We can stand up against other people's wrongs much more successfully when they know that we are ready to concede and maintain their rights. I do not expect to see lawlessness disappear from trade-unionism so long as there is so strong a disposition among employers

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to insist on making trade unions outlaws. When workmen's right to combine for the protection of their interests is fully and frankly conceded, we shall, I believe, soon see a great diminution of violence. At any rate, we shall then be in a position to deal with it, if it appears, sternly and effectively.

I do not, however, indulge the expectation that no mistakes will ever be made and no wrongs committed by workingmen after their right to combine is fully recognized. They are human, like the rest of us; and if they sometimes act foolishly and selfishly, those of us who never make any mistakes or do any mean things ourselves will be warranted in stoning them with stones.

The fact that they do sometimes act unreasonably and even brutally is constantly and passionately cited as a reason why they should not be permitted to combine. But I seem to remember to have somewhere heard it intimated that corporations have been known to behave lawlessly and flagitiously. Shall we therefore have no corporations? If power is to be denied to all who abuse it, most of us will have to go powerless for the rest of our days. If those who have most abused it are to be the first to be deprived of it, then I say deliberately that there are ten reasons for prohibiting corporations where there is one for prohibiting trade unions.

The power that men need to make them men must be given to them even though they may sometimes abuse it. That is the principle of democracy; and the time has come when the principle of democracy must be unreservedly accepted and unflinchingly applied to the organization of our industries. The common man, the workingman, must be a freeman. He must not be required or permitted to occupy a dependent or servile position in the industrial world.

It is well to get clearly before our minds the issue which confronts us. The question is whether we are ready to see our democracy complete itself. To that question the answer will not be unanimous. We have among us not a few lords of privilege who have been practicing feudalism long enough to lose their faith in democracy. Men who mount to affluence in a decade or two are quite apt to acquire contempt for those who earn their daily bread by manual labor. Some of them have sense enough to conceal it, but there are many who blurt it out with no misgiving. "Mr. Worldly Wiseman," to whom Mr. Finley Dunne has introduced us in his "Interpreter's House," is not an imaginary type; his cynicisms are but faithful reports of what may be heard anywhere in the rich men's clubs and the smoking-rooms of the American liners. The people who think that popular government is a delusion, that our public school system is a curse, and that what we want is an American House of Lords to overawe and hold in check the insurgent democracy, may be met with here and there in the resorts frequented by the new rich. The funniest thing for many a moon is the spectacle of these people beating their breasts with alarm lest Theodore Roosevelt should make himself a king!

The existence of a considerable revolt against democracy in our American citizenship is a fact to be reckoned with. It is not a matter of wonder. Many of these people are living a life which in all its features is at war with the first principles of democracy. They could hardly be expected to maintain their faith in a social theory which all their practice flouts.

There are many others whose lives are simpler, but who are beginning to shrink from the burdens which democracy imposes. Most of us have been inclined to assume that democracy was a sort of automatic device; given universal suffrage and free schools, and the machinery would run without much superintendence. It begins to be evident that this is a mistaken theory. Democracy is precisely the kind of government which requires of its citizen the largest amount of gratuitous service. We can have the best government in the world with such citizens as are now upon our soil; but only when men of intelligence and force face the responsibilities of citizenship, and give time and toil and patience to the work of training and guiding the voters. Good government under any system is a costly product, and under a democracy the cost must be paid by the entire body of competent citizens. It is a war in which there is no discharge; the vigilance which is the price of liberty is not only eternal, it is universal.

Now, it is a melancholy fact that a good

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many of our well-to-do and not evil-minded citizens are getting tired of the responsibilities of democracy; they find that it is a strenuous business, and they would fain be rid of it. They would rather give their days to gain and their nights to pleasure than to shoulder the task of governing this republic. Some of them talk very pessimistically about the future of popular government, and even hint now and then at the beneficence of a dictatorship. Such men are not likely to welcome the suggestion of the extension of democracy to the industrial realm. The existing feudalistic régime suits them better. They do not relish the task which would be thrust upon them by the democratization of our industries. They are right in thinking that it is a difficult task. Perhaps they deem it impossible. Before coming to that conclusion, however, it may be well for them to consider a few of the alternatives.

There are some difficulties, I believe, in maintaining the feudalistic régime. The employer who refuses to recognize the right of his men to have anything to say about wages or hours of labor does not always have an easy and quiet time of it. Troubles of a pretty serious nature do arise, even under such management. Are not the frictions and collisions and losses of the autocratic régime quite as injurious as any that would be likely to arise under a more friendly arrangement?

The man who thinks it would be difficult to lead his employees in the peaceful paths of productive industry may well consider whether it is any easier to drive them. He may even find it profitable to consult his own experience in answering that question.

It is prudent, also, to remember that we are dealing here with one of those secular forces against which it is futile to contend. If anything is clearly written in the book of destiny, so far as its pages have thus far been turned over, it is that democracy is going to complete itself. That process has been moving steadily forward during the past century, and it is not likely to be arrested. Feudalism has made its last stand in the industrial realm, but it is not probable that it can hold that fortress. The prevalence of the large system of industry will not be suffered to degrade our wage-workers to the condition of serfs. There has never been a day when such a result was less probable than it is to-day. If the employing class should put itself in opposition to this movement for the emancipation of the working class, the employing class would cease to exist; the wage system would be destroyed; industry would be reorganized on a new basis.

It is well, therefore, for our captains of industry to consider carefully what may be involved in their refusal to recognize or tolerate the only method by which the workingman can assert and maintain his rights. It is a perilous thing, as history shows, to deny the manhood of the common man. Kingdoms and thrones have been shaken by that refusal; the kingdom of capitalism is by no means secure against such an overturning. The danger of the hour, as it appears to me, is that our captains of industry will array against themselves the gathering might of resistless democracy and be trampled in the dust. It would be far better for them, and for the common man, and for all the rest of us, if they would keep the leadership of industry. Leadership they can have, if they have sense to claim it and wit to exercise it—leadership, but not lordship. Industrial democracy wants leaders, but not autocrats; and large rewards and precious—not billions of dollars, but blessing and honor—are waiting for those who have the vision and the courage for this high service.

Industrial democracy means giving the wage-workers, through collective bargaining, a voice in the determination of their share in the joint product. It does not mean the domination of the business by the men and the subjugation of the employer, though this is the employer's apprehension, and this is the notion that sometimes gets into the workingman's head. Mr. Keir Hardie, M.P., for whom I have great respect, spoke only the other day of the prospect that the working class was about to become the ruling class. Pardon, Mr. Hardie, but in a democracy there are no ruling classes. We call no man master, not even the walking delegate. An inverted feudalism, with the common man on top, would be no whit better than the old-fashioned sort with the common man under foot. We will have neither of them.

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You are not going to tyrannize over us, Mr. Keir Hardie, with your labor organizations, and we do not believe that you really want to do any such thing. You are going to stand by our side with power in the industrial realm to assert and maintain your rights as men, and with a sense of justice in your breasts which will enable you fully to recognize the rights of your capitalist employer; and we are going to work together, all classes—men of capital, men of organizing talent, men of skill, men of brains and men of brawn—to build a real commonwealth.

So shall we realize our democracy. It has never been anything more than the skeleton of a democracy; so long as industry is feudalistic it cannot be. But when the common man is emancipated and called into partnership by the captain of industry, we shall have a real democracy. No superhuman vision is needed to discern the fact that the confusions and corruptions of our political democracy are largely due to the disorganizing influence of this industrial feudalism, in constant contact with it, and continually thrusting its alien conceptions and ideals into the political arena. When industry is fairly democratized, it will be much easier to reform our politics.

The relinquishment of autocratic power is not apt to be a welcome suggestion; the cases are few in which it is surrendered without a deadly struggle. But within the last generation we have seen the feudal rulers of Japan resigning their power and entering heartily into the life of the commonwealth, with great honor to themselves and great profit to their nation. It is not incredible that many of our own captains of industry will discern the wisdom of a similar sacrifice. Indeed, there are those among them to whom this solution of the labor problem seems altogether feasible.

The late William Henry Baldwin, Jr., whose biography has been so admirably written by Mr. John Graham Brooks,[1] was a type of the class of employers to whom the democratization of industry is the way of life and peace. As a railway superintendent and president he had large experience in dealing with men, and all the positions taken in this article were held by him with the utmost firmness. In the book to which I have referred, and which ought to be read by every American employer, these opinions of his are set forth with great fullness. Speaking of the extension of collective bargaining, he says: "The advantages of this system are very obvious in that it is a system founded on an intelligent treatment of each question at issue, and *encourages education*, and, as far as we can see to-day, is the most advanced method and liable to produce the best results. Collective bargaining and voluntary arbitration are possible, however, *only when the employer recognizes the right of the employed to have a voice in the fixing of wages and terms of employment.*"

"In the spirit of fair play," says Mr. Brooks, "he asks the simplest question: 'If these billions of capital have to be organized to protect themselves against disputing rivalries, do not the laborers working for these organizations have the same need of combination? Do they not need it for the same reason? Is capital exposed to cutthroat competition in any greater degree than labor is exposed to it? How can capital have the face to ask for combination, in order to free itself from a murderous competition, when labor suffers every whit as much from the same cause?' I have heard Baldwin," his biographer goes on, "very eloquent on this subject. The deepest thing in him was his sense of justice. He felt it like an insult that the more powerful party should stoop to ask such odds against the weaker and more defenseless party." "'We men at the top,' said Baldwin, 'must have combination, we must have our representatives and "walking delegates." We have everything that powerful organization can ask, with the ablest lawyers to do our bidding. Labor, to protect its rights and standards, needs organization, at least as much as we need it. For capital to use its strength and skill to take this weapon from the working men and women is an outrage.'" And again: "'I need, as an employer, an organization among my employees, because they know their needs better than I can know them, and they are therefore the safeguard upon which I must depend in order to prevent me from doing them an injustice.'"

[1] "An American Citizen." By J. G. Brooks. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

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This is getting right at the nerve of the whole matter. No wiser, braver, saner words were ever spoken. The labor question will be speedily settled when such a spirit of justice and fair play, such a recognition of the elemental rights of manhood, gets possession of the hearts of employers. Of the habit of mind which cannot concede so much as this one can say nothing better than that it is unsportsmanlike. We give even the wild creatures a chance for their lives; and so long as the industrial struggle continues, the chivalrous employer will not insist that his employees shall go into the contest with their hands tied behind them.

Beyond this question of personal honor between employer and employee is one that touches very deeply the foundations of our social structure. "If capital refuses to labor what capital asks and takes for itself, what are the final consequences of that injustice? How, in the long run, is labor to take this defeat of what it believes to be its rights? Those capitalist managers really hostile to the unions said to him in excuse that the unions checked and hindered the development of business prosperity. Baldwin had his answer: 'Even if that is true, it is better to get rich at a somewhat slower pace than to make millions of wage-earners lose faith in your justice and fairness.'"

Is it too much to expect that our captains of industry will give sober heed to words like these, spoken by one of their own number?

It is not, however, necessary to assume that the democratization of industry will prove any serious obstruction to the healthy growth of business. If the trade unions have often shown themselves to be tyrannical and greedy, we must remember that they have been fighting, thus far, in an arena where belligerent rights were denied them; it is not to be wondered at that they have sometimes taken unfair advantages. When their rights are fully recognized, better conduct may be looked for. So long as they are treated as enemies it is not logical to ask them to behave as friends.

It would be interesting to study the origins of those trade unions which have made trouble for employers. The cases are not all alike, but in many instances something like this has happened: Some dissatisfaction on the part of the men has shown itself, and it becomes known to the employer that steps are being taken for the organization of a union. At once his displeasure is manifested. He feels that the action is hostile to his interest; his entire attitude toward it is unfriendly from the start. It becomes well understood among the men that those who join the union are exposing themselves to the ill will of the employer; that those who refuse to join may expect his favor. Thus the interests of the men are divided, and the non-unionist contingent is fostered by the manager as a force to check and defeat the unionists in the event of a struggle. Under such circumstances bad temper is generated on both sides, and the relations of all parties are badly strained. The manager refuses to recognize the union; that, he insists, would be an injustice to the loyal men who have refused to join it. If a union with such a history should prove to be a disturbing and refractory element in the business, it would not be a miracle.

Suppose, now, that when the first signs of an uprising among the men appear, the employer, instead of treating it with suspicion or hostility, welcomes it. Suppose that he goes out among the men and says to them, what Baldwin would have said: "Certainly, men, you must organize. I mean to treat you fairly, but I do not want you to be dependent on my favor; I insist that you shall have the power to stand for your own rights. And I want all the men in this shop to join this union. No man will curry favor with me by staying out of it. I am going to be friends with the union, and I expect the union to be my friend. This is not my business, not your business, it is our business. I shall study your interest and you will study mine; we will consult together about it all the while; I think we can make it go together. If you ask me for what I cannot give, I shall tell you so. And I hope you will learn to believe that I am telling you the truth. I shall stand for my rights if you are mean and unreasonable, and you will stand for yours if you think I am unjust, but if we must fight we will stand on the level and fight fair. I hope that there will be no fighting."

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Now, it is possible that a group of American workingmen could be found who would make trouble for an employer who took that attitude and consistently maintained it, but I do not believe that there are many such groups. It would be visionary to expect that any method which man could devise would wholly remove friction and discontent, and a strong and firm hand would often be needed in carrying out such a purpose as this, but one may confidently predict that peace and prosperity are made nearer by this approach than on the lines of industrial feudalism.

It will be observed also that such a line of policy eliminates the question of the closed shop. If the employer wishes all his employees to belong to the union, and makes it clear that union men are favored, the reason for a closed shop practically disappears. The employer's reason for an open shop is his need of a force near at hand to fight the union; when he makes the union his ally instead of his enemy, non-unionism becomes both to him and to his men a negligible quantity. The man who takes up a purpose of this kind, whether he is proprietor or general manager, cannot be guaranteed an easy job. It will not be possible for him to turn it over to subordinates; he will have to keep close to it himself. It will call for labor, for self-control, for faith in men, for all the best qualities of mind and heart. Neither in the State nor in the factory will our democracy be fulfilled without patient, heroic, self-denying work. But the work will be rewarding. Can any compensation be higher or finer than that of the man who wins, as Baldwin won, the loyal affection of scores or hundreds or thousands of men; who helps them to stand on their own feet and work out their own fortunes; who makes them see that the industry by which they gain their livelihood is one in which they have a real stake, so that they are not merely dependents on it, but, in a true sense, partners in it; who sees growing up around him a community of friendly men with some sense of the dignities of manhood and the responsibilities of citizenship? No vocation can be more sacred than this, and no reward more satisfying.

BUSINESS RELIABILITY[1]

BY HERBERT G. STOCKWELL

AS he was about to leave the courthouse a message was handed to a young attorney requesting his presence in the office of a well-known financier, whence he immediately proceeded.

"Mr. A——," said the financier, "how would you like to become vice-president and attorney for the B—— Manufacturing Company?"

"Any association with you, sir, would be a pleasure," replied the young lawyer without hesitation.

The financier explained: "My associates tell me that you have a good knowledge of business and accounts, as well as ability as a lawyer; and, more important still, you are thoroughly reliable. We want you to take charge of the office affairs of the company, consulting, of course, with the company's general counsel in any legal matters of importance. The salary is $5,000 per year. Will you take it?"

"When do I begin work?" laconically replied the young man.

A few other details were arranged, and he went home, hardly daring to believe in his "good luck" until he had actually begun his duties in the office of the B—— Company.

Does this story sound like romance? Let me assure you that it is based upon a real occurrence which happened only recently.

Do not think this an isolated case. There are to-day many financial institutions and industrial plants whose elderly

[1] The fifth of a series of five articles by Mr. Stockwell. Other articles will be found in The Outlook for January 14, February 11, February 18, and March 4.—THE EDITORS.

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presidents desire to be relieved from their responsibilities so soon as suitable young men can be found for their offices. Thus, emerging from the rank and file of business and professional struggles, many candidates for higher honors are, without their own knowledge, closely scrutinized for evidences of presidential timber.

Look at the history of any one of a number of the young men who have recently been "brought out" as presidents of large corporations. Does not our curiosity become stimulated into hopeful endeavor? Few of these men have been required to mount round after round of the ladder they began to climb. Many of them, through exhibition of extra ability, have been suddenly transplanted from the occupations in which their training was acquired to the heads of the corporations which they have been called upon to lead.

Another capitalist said to a friend the other day: "Do you know that the hardest part of my work consists in securing brainy assistants? I tell you that I have enough undeveloped matters in my office to employ twenty bright men, but I can't find them."

If the younger men engaged in business or professions could only realize the extent to which they are needed and are being watched by the prominent men in the community, with what care would they attend to their daily business transactions!

EVERY BUSINESS ENGAGEMENT SHOULD BE FAITHFULLY KEPT

No one habit is harder to form than the prompt keeping of business engagements. If a business man has an appointment with another, nothing should be allowed to prevent a punctual appearance at the time and place fixed for the meeting. When unavoidable accidents prevent, nothing short of immediate and full explanation and apology will remove the unsatisfactory impression created by the broken engagement.

This habit of "being there on time" is especially important when the engagement is between a young business man and a man of affairs; for this meeting, unknowingly to the young man, may have been arranged by the elder man as a test of character. He may consider the failure to arrive as an evidence of deficiency in reliability. Once disappointed, it is hard to overcome the distrust, unduly magnified by so slight an occurrence perhaps, but still firm enough to resist dislodgment.

FAILURE TO DELIVER GOODS WHEN PROMISED

Another form of broken engagements frequently retards the career of a business man. How exasperating to have a manufacturer or merchant fail in his promise to deliver merchandise at the specified time, thus upsetting our entire calculations in planned events! How hardly do we in future give him our entire confidence!

Many young men do not fully comprehend the slow process of character-building. One dishonored promise may, unless clearly excusable, knock down at a blow the structure which has taken years to erect. If they could but see how much easier it is to destroy than to create reputations for reliability, every man would give as constant heed to the exact performance of each and every verbal contract or engagement as most men do to those which can be enforced against them in law.

With what admiration we all contemplate the man whose "word is as good as his bond"! When such a man speaks, our pencils fly quickly back into our pockets. We have no need for a signed memorandum of the transaction. If he says, "I will take it," or "You may count on me," you know that when the time arrives for him to "make good" he will be ready for you. Did this enviable reputation attach itself to him in one notorious occurrence? Not so easily do men yield up their business confidence. Reputations for the possession of many other traits of character may be quickly earned by the willing or foisted upon the unwilling man, but the reputation for reliability is of slow growth. You may be sure that he who possesses this valuable treasure has nurtured and guarded it carefully from youth up. Its possession inspires the confidence of all those who have experienced business contact with its possessor. They do not have to watch him!

DEPENDABLE MERCHANDISE

Goods manufactured or sold by the man of reliability may be depended upon to turn out in the exact quality, size,

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or weight as marked on the outside of the package. Advertisements of such men are read in the belief that the goods may be purchased in faith that what is said about them is the truth. If we go into the store of a reliable merchant and meet with some seeming trickery on the part of his clerks, we know that we have but to get the ear of the proprietor to have the wrong set right; and he will thank us for calling attention to the error. Sometimes our unfortunate experiences in dealing with the very large stores lead us to believe that the proprietors are indifferent to this quality. If we remember that the growth of a business may become so rapid as to outstride its organization, we know that the fault lies in the limit of human capacity for personal supervision of all details by the proprietor. In but few of such cases does the owner himself strive to win your confidence, and he may not have been successful in training his clerks.

REPRESENTATIVES OF RELIABLE BUSINESS MEN

With what assurance does the attorney, clerk, salesman, or agent of a man whose reputation for reliability is established go forth to represent his principal! What a difference between his view of business transactions and that of the representative of a man upon whom dependence cannot be placed! Far away from the proprietor of the business as he may go, the representative of the reliable man knows what to do in any question involving right or wrong. By these unwritten but none the less binding instructions he knows that his chief would have him decide the matter in accordance with right principles. His path is much smoother than that of the representative who never knows what his principal will do in any given question. How much easier to learn and be guided by simple rules establishing reliability than to attempt to follow the intricate paths of chicanery!

REPUTATION AT BANK

Methods of business to-day are such that it is difficult for any business man to avoid borrowing money, either directly from a bank or by means of "merchandise" notes. Most men attend to such obligations when due, even though extensions of time must be asked, but too many business men are careless in this respect. In numerous banks on any given day, if you could look over the bank examiner's shoulder, you would find several overdue notes classified as "dishonored paper," which have been neglected through mere carelessness. In many cases the makers of the notes will go to the bank in a day or two and either pay the full amount thereof or effect renewals. In cases of pure neglect the bank sustains no loss, but the business man who does not attend promptly to such matters suffers a severe loss—a loss of reputation for reliability. When any man finds that he will not be able to pay his note in full, he should go to the bank several days before the note becomes due and explain his position frankly. If believed, and entitled to a renewal with or without a payment on account, he will obtain the accommodation. In any event, by giving the matter his prompt attention his reputation as a man who will do his best will remain untarnished.

MERCANTILE CREDIT BASED LARGELY UPON RELIABLE HABITS

Besides the mere statements of a man's net worth, important consideration is often given by mercantile agencies to his business reputation for reliability. Three extracts from reports of men each conducting a business of moderate dimensions may be interesting as examples illustrating this thought. In each of these three cases the financial strength or net worth taken by itself would not entitle him to the good rating given:

A—The opinion is expressed by those knowing him that he would not be liable to contract any personal indebtedness which he did not see his way clear to meet at maturity.

B—Our relations with him have been such that we are not familiar with his affairs in detail, but we believe him to be a reliable man.

C—Among the trade he stands well, and his bank speaks well of him. He can be relied on to do what he promises.

Who would think that the hard-headed sleuths of a mercantile agency would deem these things worthy of report! Yet those familiar with "credits" know the intrinsic value of business reliability, and gladly

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welcome reports including observations of that nature.

CONTRACTORS' PECULIAR TEMPTATIONS

When a customer can see and handle a definite article, he can protect himself in a measure from deceit, but in any form of business involving construction to be performed after the contract is made the buyer must rely more or less upon the contractors' reliability. Special opportunities for taking advantage of the buyer's ignorance lead many contractors to indulge in "tricks of the trade," which may often be carried through without the practice of "legal" fraud. Many things arise in the course of a building operation easily interpretable and chargeable as *extras* by a sharp contractor to which a reliable man would attend without question as coming within the spirit, if not the letter, of the terms of the contract.

To a decorating contractor came an applicant for the position of foreman. "I will guarantee that you will get 'extras' amounting to at least twenty per cent more than your contracts on any job I have charge of," said he. The contractor, without hesitation, said: "You are just the man I am *not* looking for. This is a reliable firm."

Go back to the man who taught you that, foreman, and compare his business, from all angles, with that of the firm who rejected you.

ALLOWING USE OF HIS NAME BY OTHERS

Business men who jealously guard their reputations in their own affairs too often slacken their watchfulness when their names are used in connection with promotions. One of the most flagrant corporation swindles practiced in recent years was made possible by prominent business men who allowed their names to be used as directors of the company. They were known to be reliable, therefore the company with which they were connected must be reliable. Not one of these directors made a dollar in the swindle, but their reputations for reliability rightly suffered among the thousands of those who lost their savings.

Another picture comes to mind in which I see an entirely different type of director. He sits on the boards of half a dozen large financial institutions, in not one of which does any other director assume that this man will "go along" without having the matter fully explained, nor unless it meets with his approval. He is "no man's man." In all of his affairs, private or public, he can be trusted to do all that he says, or leads people to believe, he will do.

GOOD WILL

What a capital building power is reliability! The reliable business man is secretly accumulating property other than the dollars shown on his books, which can some day be turned into money. This hidden capital is called good will, and it is well worth working for.

Good will in a successful business has a much more tangible value than is commonly realized. When a man sells his business, he expects to be paid well for this asset, although it is not shown in the inventory, yet many scarcely think of the means by which it is created. Good will is acquired only by those who patiently, day by day, adhere to simple business principles, one of which was so well expressed by a successful manufacturer who was asked for a definition of reliability: "When a man does what he agrees to—that's reliability!"

STUDYING RELIABLE MEN

A manufacturer who has risen rapidly into a position of National importance was once asked, "How did you acquire a knowledge of the business so quickly?" His answer was short and to the point: "I didn't study the business, I studied its president." This answer, intended to be partly humorous, contained a germ of serious instruction. Knowledge of the business itself must be carefully acquired by any one who would advance, but that is not all. To the men at the head of the business we must go to learn of basic business qualities. As we study them we can scarcely fail to observe that of the many priceless possessions of our great business men none is regarded more highly than the unpurchasable reputation for reliability.

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THE REVEALING OF THE HEART

2 COR. III. 5-18

BY THE REV. FRANCIS G. PEABODY

PLUMMER PROFESSOR OF CHRISTIAN MORALS IN HARVARD UNIVERSITY

This is the third of a series of Lenten Sermons. Other sermons in this series will be by the Rev. Dr. Edward Judson and the Very Rev. Alexander P. Doyle.—THE EDITORS.

That the thoughts of many hearts may be revealed.—Luke ii. 35.

THIS is the prophecy of the aged Simeon as he stands in the Temple, a few days after the birth of Jesus, holding the baby in his arms. There is hardly any more beautiful scene in history. The old man has been waiting for the consolation of Israel; he is a just and devout man; the Holy Ghost is upon him; and now in his old age he is permitted to see the hope of his nation fulfilled. The lingering past holds the new-born future in its arms, and the old man sings: "Now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace, . . . for mine eyes have seen thy salvation." Then, still holding the child high before the people, the old man goes on to tell what is to happen now that this boy is born. He "is set," says Simeon, "for the fall and rising again of many in Israel;" and we remember how soon it came to pass that fishermen rose to be Apostles, and Pharisees fell under the judgment of Christ. He is to be a sign, goes on Simeon, "which shall be spoken against;" and we remember how soon it happened that the way of Jesus was beset by misinterpretation, slander, and shame. Then, finally, and with a still finer instinct, old Simeon prophesies that, as the last sign of the Messiahship of Jesus, "the thoughts of many hearts may be revealed." People, that is to say, who should come into relation with Jesus would not only learn many and wonderful thoughts out of his heart, but they would also have revealed unto themselves the thoughts of their own hearts; and he, on his side, would not only understand these thoughts of other hearts, but he would enable people to understand their own thoughts and would reveal to them the self which lay within themselves. The gift of Jesus to many a life was to be not only a revealing of the mysteries of God, but a revealing of one's own spiritual capacity, the consciousness of one's power, the renewal of one's self-respect, the discovery that within one's heart lay thoughts which were better than one had ever dreamed were there.

So stands the man of the old order looking into the promise of the new; and few things are more wonderful in the story of Jesus than the way in which this prophecy of Simeon soon came to be fulfilled. One after another the people of the New Testament come into the presence of Jesus, some of them sympathizers, some enemies, some puzzled, some impetuous, some neutral, some timid; and to many of the questions which they ask of him they get no satisfying reply. They often remain bewildered about the relation of Christ to his Father and the mission of Christ to the world. Yet, as they pass out of his presence, one thing has been revealed which was perhaps the last thing they had expected. It is the thoughts of their own hearts. They have had themselves disclosed to themselves; and their interior characters, motives, capacities, and sins, which had been hitherto only half understood even by themselves, are clarified, interpreted, and illuminated by their intercourse with Jesus Christ. Here, for instance, comes Nathanael, doubtful, wary, asking, "Can there any good thing come out of Nazareth?" and Jesus looks on him and through him, reads his character—faithful, pure, fit for discipleship—and says of him, "Behold an Israelite indeed, in whom there is no guile!" and Nathanael, who fancied that he was observing and judging Jesus, is turned back upon himself, and says, "Whence knowest thou *me*?" Then Peter comes, inconstant, wavering, more like shifting sand than solid rock, and Jesus looks through him also, and, beneath all the blunders he is to make, and the self-reproach which is

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to be his, perceives the underlying capacity for ultimate leadership, and says of him, fickle, impetuous, as he seems to himself, "Thou shalt be called a rock." Then Pilate comes, wary, sagacious, anxious to be unentangled in the case of Jesus, and his temporizing, worldly wisdom is laid bare at a stroke as Jesus says, "Thou sayest that I am a king," and instead of judging Jesus, Pilate is judged and condemned. So they come, and so they pass: the woman of Samaria, touched with a wonder she had not thought was hers to feel; the woman who was a sinner, recalled to the virtue she had thought was lost. It is as though these figures came up out of the shadow and passed before the penetrating rays of the person of Jesus, and he shone on them for a moment and revealed to them a self within themselves, and they passed on with a sense of significance and power given to their obscure and insignificant lives.

Such was the extraordinary fulfillment of the old man's prophecy, and it remains a promise which gives courage and hope to many a modern life. This is a wonderful time and a wonderful America in which it is our privilege to live: a time, we are told, of the greatest diffusion of general prosperity recorded in the history of the world; a time of quite unprecedented transformations in industry, of amazing increase in productiveness and power. Never before was the world so highly organized or so mechanically perfect; and yet out of this aggregated life there issues one new peril, which threatens to rob all these gains of half their glory. It is the peril of a suppressed and undiscovered personality, the merging of the individual in the movement of the mass, the risk that in this vast organization of efficiency the thoughts of many hearts shall remain quite unrevealed. Here is this mighty movement of industrial and political life, with its huge aggregation of material forces and of masses of men; but in this vast mechanism of the modern world, where is the place for the individual soul? What is it but one part of the great machine, one little wheel interlocking and revolving with the rest? A workman, a clerk, a factory hand, a teacher, a scholar, looks at his life, so fragmentary, so mechanical, so impersonal, and cries out: "Why should I have any thought in my heart? Why should I have any heart? What am I but one shuttle in the great mill of modern life as it weaves the rich product of the modern time?" I stood once by the deathbed of such a man—a clerk in a vast establishment—and we talked together of the death that seemed approaching, and the man looked up into my face out of the sad story of a depersonalized and mechanical life, and said, "Sir, I have been dead and buried for twenty years." That is the seamy side of our material development. It is what the economists call the "cost of progress," or the "anonymousness of industry," where a human life, instead of having revealed to it the thoughts of its own heart, is simply one more cog in the great machine.

"Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers, and
I linger on the shore,
And the individual withers, and the world is
more and more."

When one turns to the other end of life, from its work to its play, from the routine of industrial life to the routine of social life, is it not much the same? How mechanical, formal, oppressive, unreal, it often seems! What is it that brings to many a young man or woman a great sense of recoil from the habits and demands of modern life, its conventionalism, its uniformity, its incessant round of social obligations and routine? It is the same fear that the thoughts of one's own heart may be crushed by the weight of the mass, so that personality, individuality, originality, liberty, life itself, may be lost. The very slang of the day exhibits the social world as an aggregate and impersonal movement, in which the individual sinks. One person says that he "keeps up with the procession," as though the problem of his life were that of a little boy who keeps step with the band; another person says that he is "in the swim," as though he were a kind of conscious chip in the middle of a resistless current; and out of all this submerging civilization many a young life lifts itself up and cries: "Oh, to be myself! Oh, to be taken out of this stream of things and to find a place where I may stand on my feet! What shall it profit me if I gain all the world and lose my

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own soul? Somehow, somewhere, O world in which I seem irrevocably set, reveal to me the thoughts of my own heart!" It is often said that what young people of the present time most need is humility. They think too much of themselves; they need chastening and correcting—the "taking down" of their conceit; and it would certainly be excessive to maintain that there is no such need, or that the young person of the present age is altogether ready for the blessing pronounced upon the poor in spirit. Yet it is quite certain that the chief fault of young people to-day is of the opposite kind. It is not their sense of self-sufficiency which most obstructs their moral growth, but their sense of insignificance. For one young life that thinks too much of itself, a hundred think too little of themselves; for one who needs self-suppression, a score need self-respect; for one who needs "taking down," a dozen need lifting up. A young man or woman looks at the demands of duty or religion, and says: "This is not a call to me. I am neither a hero nor a saint. What part have I in tasks like these?" Another young life is beset by the conventions and traditions of his set, his clique, his college, and says, "Who am I to resist or control or divert these social laws?" The mass overcomes the person, and the thoughts of many hearts are unrevealed. What is it, then, which these young lives need? It is moral courage, the sense of capacity, the restoration of faith in their own thoughts. They may need the rebuking of mistakes, but they need much more the fortifying of self-respect. They need a conviction of sin, but they need still more a conviction of power. A great flood of conventionalism and conformity has swept over the modern world, and bears on its crest a wave of personal discouragement and impotency, until many a life finds itself almost drowned beneath the choking pressure of the world's work or the paralyzing *ennui* of the world's play; and the recovery of faith, not in God or in Christ alone, but in one's self, the rescue of the life from the things that crush the life, becomes the elementary desire and prayer of many a modern soul.

Now, to people living thus in an age of machinery, to people thus swept along by the swift stream of living, yet thirsty for the water of life, there comes this first message of the religion of Jesus Christ. The Christian religion begins with one great assumption—that human beings are children of God; that neither dullness nor hardness nor lack of opportunity altogether robs one of the right to be good and to do good; that this is what people are made for; that when any child of God, even in a far country of sin and shame, turns to the Father, then, as was said of the Prodigal, "he comes to himself;" that it was not his true self which had wandered away, but that he had wandered away from his true self; that the thoughts of one's own heart which call him to his best are the call of God to the inheritance which all the time belonged to the child. Believing all this, Jesus believed in people just as they were. He believed in them even when they did not believe in themselves. He believed in Peter, though Peter denied him; he believed in Thomas, though Thomas doubted him; he discerned the potential capacity of men before they had recognized it themselves. He took them just as they were, and through his faith in them created in them the character which they had not supposed they could assume, until the secrets which were hidden from them in their own hearts were through his faith in them finally revealed. It was a pedagogical instinct in Jesus. He had the mind of the born teacher. He knew that little can be got out of a life by a teacher except by the teacher's faith that each life is made for something, and that to draw out the Divine intention for that life is the teacher's task and joy. That, indeed, is what millions of people have meant by being saved by Jesus Christ. It is not that they have been saved from torment, or saved from themselves, but that they have been saved *to* themselves, so that the possibilities of their own nature have been revealed to them, and the thoughts of their own hearts which they had lost have been found. I was reading a while ago a little book in which the author told the story of his own life, and in the preface he had written: "This is a book with but one intention—that, in being read, it may read you." That is what might be said of the influ-

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ence of the Gospels. They are the story of a life; but, in being read, they read you. They report to you, not only the story of Jesus, but the story of your own experience. It is not only you that find their meaning; but, as Coleridge said, they "find you." In his letter to the Corinthians the Apostle Paul tells the same story in a striking figure. It is, he says, as though the Christian were set before a wonder-working mirror, in which was reflected the glory of God. At first the image of this glory dazzles the beholder, and he puts a veil between it and himself; but gradually, as he looks again into the mirror, he discerns his own features reflected back to him, but touched with something of that glory which was itself too bright to bear, until at last his own image is changed into the image of the Divine likeness, so that the looker-on becomes like that on which he looks. "Beholding," the Apostle says, "as in a mirror the glory of the Lord, we are changed into the same image . . . by the Spirit of the Lord." That, he thought, is what may happen as one looks steadily into the mirror of God. It is not that he shall be all at once made perfect, but that by degrees the veil shall be drawn away before the magic glass, and he shall see his imperfect thoughts touched with the glory of God's intention, until that which he is changes before him into that which he prays to be, as by the Spirit of the Lord.

Here, then, is an aspect of the religion of Jesus Christ which may make a starting-point for rational discipleship. It is not the whole of his gospel; it is not the profoundest part of his gospel; but it may be the first gift of his religion to many a timid, hesitating, bewildered life. When one recalls the motives which through the Christian centuries have operated most strongly to stir the higher life, they turn out, in the main, to have been two. On the one hand is the motive of self-reproach, on the other hand is the motive of self-respect. One is the scorn of sin, the other is the desire for holiness. Both of these motives have a legitimate part in the creation of the Christian character; but the first and expulsive force which drives out evil has had an enormously greater place than the second and attractive force which draws to good. The first is the cry of Paul: "Who shall deliver me from the body of this death?" and it has been taken up by teachers of religion, as though the secret of holiness lay in the confession of helplessness. In Jesus, however, we hear for the most part the other note. He too understands the power of self-reproach; he too welcomes the confession, "God be merciful to me, a sinner!" but with Jesus the sense of impotency is but a step on the way to the sense of strength, like a soldier's sudden sinking of heart when he is summoned to charge. The call of God, as Jesus heard it, is the call of a commander who has faith in his men, the call to courage, to advance, to victory. Jesus does not merely tell men that they are weak, he makes them believe that they are strong. He bids them never to believe in less than their own best. He shows them the way up the heights they desire to scale, and goes before them on that hard path, so that they follow in his steps where they had thought they could not go. That is the Christian method—the renewal of courage by the communication of power, the transfiguration of life in the mirror of God so that it is changed by that into which it looks. Discipleship brings with it self-discovery. Returning to the Father is coming to one's self. The Christian life develops unsuspected power. Intimacy with Jesus Christ is the revelation of one's own heart.

There are many things which people want to get from their religion and which religion does not seem to bestow. They want to be assured of their future; they want to be saved from their past; they want the present made easier; and all these prayers seem to leave them just about where they were. The old routine, the inexorable machinery, still environs them, and they begin to wonder what their religious faith was meant to do. One of the most striking facts in the ministry of Jesus is that the same business in which his disciples were engaged when he first met them was the business in which he left them at the end. They were fishermen tending their nets at the beginning of the Gospel of Matthew; and they were fishermen still tending their nets at the end of the Gospel of John. What, then, did Jesus do for them? The old life, just

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as it was, had become to them a new life, because they discovered within it a possible companionship with the creative work of God, so that the same persons who had cast their nets with the dull stolidity of many a modern fisherman found themselves called to put forth into the deep and catch men. That is the miracle which religion still waits to perform. The work of faith is not to transform one's circumstances or lessen the pressure of routine, but to disentangle from that routine the thoughts of the heart, as the fingers of Peter and Andrew disentangled themselves from the meshes of their nets as they rose up and followed Christ. In the midst of the inevitable routine and detail of the world a life starts up and says: "I am not a cog; I am not a wheel; I am not a chip; I am a child of God, a partaker of the Divine nature, a laborer with God, a joint heir with Jesus Christ." Then experience is transformed from prose to poetry, and the ideals of life become its realities, and the secrets of the heart are revealed; and as one looks into the magic mirror of God his little fragmentary, fruitless life is changed into some dim reflection of the glory of the Lord. The tapestry weavers of Paris, it is said, did their work at the back of the picture which they created, where they saw only the fragments of their task and the loose ends which were left behind; but from time to time the workman might rise from the corner where he worked and go round to the other side and see the total picture in which each had his slight but essential share. That is religion —the going round to the other side of things, the seeing the whole of that in which one has his fragmentary part; and that is what gives to life its dignity, patience, and joy. The loose ends fall into their places when one sees the Master Craftsman's plan, and the thoughts of many hearts are at last united, interpreted, and revealed.

GETTING THE NIGHT NEWS

BY SHEPARD A. MORGAN

MOST readers seem to regard a morning newspaper as a matter-of-fact miracle, something that is put together by a subtle mechanism and makes its appearance in some unknowable way just in time for breakfast. It may be that there is no familiar thing which is got together in a manner so foreign to common knowledge. People do not know how this or that got into the paper, how it came to be found out or how it came to be written. Somebody must have written it, that is clear; but if you ask how somebody came to do it, the answer comes back, "Why, of course, somebody must have been there."

Perhaps he was, but the chances are that he was not. A very considerable part of the episodes related to the public every morning cannot be foreseen, and that in itself is reason enough why the man who wrote the story did not see the incident. Some readers, having suspected this truth, tell you that the facts written in the newspapers are not so at all. "The facts are all dressed up," they say, "so as to make what you call stories. That's what they really are, you know. Most of them are fiction."

These persons are as much out of the way as the one who assumes the presence of a conscientious and perceptive reporter at every incident noted in the newspaper. By its very nature news that cannot be foreseen has to be ascertained from those who took part in the episode that made it, or deduced from such physical evidences as are left behind after the incident is over. Plays, baseball games, public meetings and dinners, the opera—these are told of by men who saw at least a part of what they describe. But most of the emergency news, and especially the emergency news that comes late at night, is told on second-hand, and sometimes even on third or fourth hand, information.

By the time the night force comes to work—just what the night force is com-

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posed of will appear later on—the day city editor has mapped out the paper in so far as he has information. He has assigned men to cover all the prearranged evening events that seem worth the trouble, and he has provided for getting all the news that has shown itself in the morning and afternoon. This last includes everything from automobile accidents to bank failures, and some of it may even be ready for the copy reader by the time the night city editor gets to the office.

The special characteristic of night work is the uncertainty of it. One never knows what is going to happen next. An evening may start as quietly as a June morning, but that is no sign that it is going to remain so. A newspaper office—and especially is this true of New York—is the prey of every wind that sweeps over the world. It is conceivable that an accident in New South Wales may have a New York "end to it," as the Park Row phrase is, and cause a flutter in the newspaper offices there: and it is certain that the wrecking of the London-Liverpool boat train would set them by the ears. This is because New Yorkers have interests everywhere and are to be found everywhere.

One is not to understand that a newspaper office set by the ears is a newspaper office distracted. Distraction costs minutes, and these are fetishes to be worshiped. No matter what happens, the editions must go to press on time. Otherwise you who live a night's journey from New York will miss your paper in the morning. Moreover, it is your right to have all the news up to the minute that the last piece of copy goes to the composing-room. So it is clear that the office cannot lose its head.

Obviously, all this is a matter of organization and direction. The burden of getting the night news of the city into the paper—and in places like New York telegraph and cable despatches are apt to add much to the mass of local news—rests upon the night city editor. Every incident of the least moment passes under his inspection, so that he can, as it were, keep his fingers on the pulse of the city and the district within a hundred miles of it. The men who received special evening assignments from the day city editor report to him before they write what they saw or learned, and the progress of every episode of an emergency character is told to him as it is known.

This last is the special field of the night force. The things that happen in a hurry and have to be told in a hurry are taken care of by men in and out of the office who for the time being do nothing else. The system under which they work is in essentials the same on all the metropolitan papers, varying in details according to the importance attached to local news and the amount of assistance derived from local news bureaus.

This system is not greatly unlike that which an antique furniture shop in New York used to utilize in gathering and marketing its wares. The plan worked so well that the proprietor bought altogether too much old furniture and failed. He had five or six collectors working through the country districts picking up what fine old pieces they could. Four-posters and spinnets and secretaries came tumbling into the New York shop, and there a young man looked them over to see if they needed new legs or new tops or simply some good coats of varnish and rubbing down. Then he passed each piece on to a good workman who did the job, making it ready for the show window.

Most of the collectors of emergency news at night do not write a word of it themselves. They are gatherers of facts pure and simple. Their work is not to be discounted on that account, however, for the ability to collect news is hardly second to the power of writing it.

These men are spread out over the city at night like policemen on their beats. They are as regularly a part of the newspaper's force as the copy-readers, for newspapers in these days cannot trust to chance informants. They keep watch over the police stations, the hospitals, and other centers for emergency news, and report frequently to their offices by telephone, telling what they know and asking for orders.

The man who receives what the district men collect and who tries to find out what parts are missing so that they can be found and slipped into place as swiftly as possible is called variously "the long wait man" (because he stays at work longer than any of the other news-gatherers) or

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the "rewrite man." This person is the spider at the center of the web, and he is the first to know what is going on at the remotest edge. He is, so to speak, the first sieve for night news, and it is his duty to see that his paper has a chance to print in intelligible form something about everything that happens. Whether it does or not is another matter.

On busy evenings this man does hardly any writing at all. He becomes for the time scarcely anything but an executive. He has his hands full finding out what the district men have to send in, picking the flaws and opening the way toward finding the missing parts, making such assignments as the night city editor directs or as the incoming news suggests, and keeping an eye on what is being written.

With him are working three or four men who take notes on what the district men have to report and then write the stories as though they had been there themselves. These men are clearly important units in the news-getting system. Some of them are drawn from the swiftest and best writers on the paper. Sometimes, indeed often, they have to undertake some of the biggest features in the day's news.

This also is a great school for the "cub," the newly made reporter. He gets his first ideas of news values on the "short wait," as this task is called, and in it he gets his first lessons in writing against time. A reporter without speed is like a Christian without charity; he has nothing. A first-rate man is able to write intelligible, vivid English at a speed of scarcely less than twenty-five hundred words an hour, and again and again he will find that his knack at his typewriter is the only thing that saves him from missing his edition and the newspaper's readers from complete ignorance as to some essential item in the day's history.

No newspaper is dependent upon its district men or upon chance informants for the first hint on emergency news. In New York, as in most large American cities, the report of an accident or a crime is sent to Police Headquarters almost as soon as it occurs. It may come simply as a call for an ambulance, with the added legend, "Boy fell from roof," or "Train derailed in subway," or "Woman shot."

The greatness of possibility hidden behind any one of these barren statements of fact is such that none of them can be overlooked. In order that the work of finding out the truth may begin at the earliest moment, the newspapers keep men of discrimination and experience at Police Headquarters who look out for just such early reports. They hear, too, of important arrests almost as soon as they are made, of raids upon gambling-rooms and other unlawful resorts, and of all the manifold activities of the police. They have their own fire gongs like those in the fire-engine houses, and learn of a fire as quickly as do the firemen themselves.

These reports, and also those from the Coroner's office, where the first statements are made of sudden deaths, are sent into the city rooms of the newspapers by telephone. Usually an office boy writes them out and carries them to the rewrite desk, but in cases of great urgency the report is made directly to the long wait man or to the night city editor himself.

Sometimes, of course, a reporter on his way to an assignment will see something that suggests itself as a story and will tell his office of it so that it can be looked into. Sometimes also a station man picks up the threads of a story before the first tip, as the phrase is, reaches the office, or a reader with a sense of responsibility lets drop a word that something has happened or is about to happen. There is also the host of persons, publicity agents and the like, who are interested in getting certain pieces of news printed. They send in typewritten statements, which sometimes can be remodeled, after proper verification, into items worthy of a place in the paper.

But, by all odds, the most probable first source of information in matters of an emergency character is Police Headquarters. In most instances the first intimation is a statement that an ambulance has been called for, or that a fire alarm has been sent in. The men in the office have the city mapped out in their heads with fair accuracy, and they know with tolerable assurance what districts are apt to yield the best stories under the special circumstances indicated on the police slips.

The district man is called for and is

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told what has happened. He learns from the police station of the precinct in which the incident is supposed to have occurred how grave a matter it appears to be, and, if it warrants the trouble, he starts off full tilt for the place where the episode took place. He has an advantage over a man sent from the office in that he is minutes nearer the distressed locality. How great this advantage is nobody outside of the newspaper business can comprehend.

In most instances second reports come from Police Headquarters, telling in the curious phraseology of the police what has happened. Mrs. Mary Foley, of — East Thirty-eighth Street, has attempted suicide by gas at residence [the police always speak in that way] and has been removed to Bellevue Hospital, a prisoner. Or, Hyman Horowitz, thirty-four years, married, of 24 Essex Street,[1] has been struck on head with blunt instrument during altercation with wife, Sarah [these also are the usual police phrases], and has received contusions and lacerations to same. He has been removed to Gouverneur Hospital. Or, Francesca Zucca, housework, address unknown, has been removed from Fourteenth Street and Third Avenue to Bellevue Hospital, insane. Or, John Golubowsky has fallen from scaffold and has been attended and home. Or, Kee Lee, in laundry at — West One Hundred and Thirty-seventh Street, has been assaulted by three unidentified men (who escaped), receiving possible fracture of skull, contusions, and lacerations.

These and many others like them are dumped into the hoppers of the newspaper offices every night. On the chance that there may be enough of the unusual in the attempt of Mrs. Foley upon her life to redeem the narrative from a depiction of drab misery, the district man makes a more or less casual inquiry into it. Mrs. Foley's story, if it were known, would undoubtedly make the backbone of a novel, but it is scarcely probable that it would be news. Most people do not like to read of wretchedness in a newspaper unless there is some element that is unfamiliar. The episodes of Hyman Horowitz, Kee Lee, and the rest promise little more, and some of them might be safely neglected.

On one evening a few weeks back among the reports were two or three stabbings, a bomb explosion in an Italian settlement in Greenwich Village, a hold-up, three cases like Mrs. Foley's, eight or nine fires, one of which was on a lighter alongside a steamship pier, and a surface car accident in which a boy was carried four blocks on the fender of the car before the motorman noticed him. Altogether they made about four inches in the paper. The incident of the boy was by all odds the most promising because of the element of novelty. On the same night a spurned mendicant cast a brick through a window of somebody's house on Fifth Avenue, injuring nobody and doing very little damage. Because brick-throwing is uncommon on Fifth Avenue, and because the aggrieved owner possessed a name widely known, the story was written for two-thirds of a column and was placed in the most prominent spot in the paper.

News is not democratic. If there is a hint that an automobile has been wrecked by a Seventh Avenue car at Thirty-ninth Street at half an hour, say, before midnight, there is every likelihood that the story will be one of the very greatest importance. The possibility is, of course, that somebody's motor omnibus taking half a dozen opera-goers home from the Metropolitan has been overturned and that some of them are badly hurt.

The office can spare no time and no effort in getting the facts at the very earliest moment. If the up-State readers are to learn anything about the incident in the next morning's papers, something must be in the hands of the compositors within half an hour of the time the report is received. The station man in whose district the accident occurred is told of it in case he has not started already, and other station men are hurried over as auxiliaries as swiftly as they can be found. Possibly a man is sent from the office as an additional safeguard.

But the main dependence, at least for the first details, is placed upon the telephone. The rewrite men undertake to reach everybody in the vicinity who may have an item of news to furnish. The press representative of the opera-house

[1] This address is in a park. East Side tipsters often use it when they send in false stories.

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may have something, a cigar-store on the corner may have something, a garage or a drug-store or a cab-stand may have something. The hospitals which offer ambulance service in that district may be able to tell how serious the accident is, and at the end of a few minutes may be able to furnish names and the extent of injuries.

And when the names come in, either as the rewrite men get them or as they are learned by the men on the spot, there will be more hints as to the nature of the accident. The books and the filing cases in the office will be searched to establish who the injured are, so that the readers in the morning can tell at a glance whether John Smith the lawyer or John Smith the broker is the man who was hurt, and whether the Frederick Jones mentioned is the man whose leg was broken at polo last summer.

The bits are patched together as they come in, conflicting details are either left out or the more credible version is accepted to the exclusion of the other, and by the time the paper goes to press there will be a connected and reasonably complete story of what the accident was. For the second edition, which goes up an hour and a quarter later, there ought to be as complete a narrative as the occasion demands.

With what speed all this is done and with what sacrifice of nervous energy, nobody can realize who has not had a part in it. But there are compensations in the work. It is vital, and in its own manner it throws into play whatever powers of shrewd discrimination and swift expression a man may have.

The men who do this work are chiefly young men. They are in the business from a variety of motives, and stay in it through a variety of aspirations. But in the statement of the facts, no matter how yellow or how conservative their papers may be, they seem to have one moving characteristic in common. They try to get such news as appeals most to their several audiences and to tell it in the way that pleases those audiences. It may be that the readers of the newspapers are in reality the dictators of what the newspapers are.

THE NEW BOOKS

"Corruption in American Politics and Life," by Robert C. Brooks, Professor of Political Science in the University of Cincinnati, is of a character which suggests, on the one hand, the magazine writer, on the other hand the academic lecturer. It is a current discussion of a current public topic. It furnishes discussion of principles rather than knowledge of facts. The chapter on "Campaign Contributions" gives some information concerning recent legislation on that subject, but the book as a whole is less specific and informing than, for example, Mr. Bryce's "American Commonwealth." We do not find in it any account of the Crédit Mobilier, nor of the methods of Tammany Hall, nor of boss rule and how it operates. The discussion is popular rather than scientific, and ethical rather than historical. But the writer is rational and discriminating. He gives a fair showing to views which he does not entertain, and appeals to the reason, not to the prejudices, of his readers in his replies. His ethical standards are high, but he is not a doctrinaire, and his judgments concerning the nature and extent of corruption in the United States are eminently sane. The book might be characterized in a sentence as a well-balanced, high-minded, and judicial treatment from an ethical point of view of facts which are generally well known to intelligent readers of the newspaper and periodical literature of their country. (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $1.25.)

"Robinetta," written by the combined literary effort of Kate Douglas Wiggin, Jane Findlater, Mary Findlater, and Allan McAulay, is a pleasing story of a young American widow and orphan who visits her mother's ancestral home in England, presided over by an exceedingly grim and unreceptive Englishwoman of high family, broad acres, and narrow means. The charm of the American girl in time makes an impression even on this aunt-in-law, while Robinetta captures offhand the affection of a jolly midshipman cousin (a capital type of English boy and the best character in the book), of her mother's old nurse, and, last but not least, of a visiting young lawyer. Her adventures with the three are told with fun and also with not a little real feeling and charm. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.10.)

Mr. Arnold Bennett's "Denry the Audacious" is another story of his favorite Five Towns, but, as compared with "The Old Wives' Tale" and "Clayhanger," is slight

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and light. Yet it is an amusing trifle, relating with gusto the astonishing success of a cheeky young man who follows sudden impulses to actions which first make people stare, then laugh, and finally put him down as a queer but clever genius. There is nothing bad about him, and his ventures socially, financially, and matrimonially make entertaining reading. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.50.)

Louis XI and François Villon have appeared before this in many a romance and play, but Mr. Hamilton Drummond's "The Justice of the King" puts them in a new setting and to a considerable extent in new lights of character. They are, moreover, here the cause of action and passion in others—a brave boy soldier and a great-hearted girl, the guardian of the Dauphin, who is distrusted and all but given over to assassination by his royal father. As a tale of movement and plot this romance is intensely alive, and it is far superior in style and charm to the average novel of its class. The originality of the story in the large and of the incidents in detail is nowhere more evident than in the closing chapters. The author is to be commended for refraining from an attempt to reproduce old times by labored diction. The stream of the narrative flows fresh and clear. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

"Alise of Astra," by Mr. H. B. Marriott Watson, is a capital plot-story of that type of which "The Prisoner of Zenda" was the forerunner. The incidents are well invented and artfully combined. If the romance cannot claim a high place as regards intellectual value or subtle study of human nature, it may nevertheless receive praise for its careful construction and its success in maintaining the reader's interest. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston.)

We can best give our readers an idea of Mr. Carl S. Vrooman's volume on railways by giving first the descriptive title-page and next an interpretation of the title in the opening sentence of the introduction: "American Railway Problems in the Light of European Experience; or, Government Regulation vs. Government Operation of Railways." "Slowly but surely, the more intelligent among our citizens are coming to recognize that the only solution for our railway problem lies in the working out for ourselves of the most effective possible system of railway regulation, while at the same time taking the precaution to make gradual preparation for that consummation which all serious students of the subject recognize to be at least possible, and which most authorities, even when opposed to it theoretically, recognize as the most probable *ultimate* solution of the transportation problem, *i.e.*, public ownership and operation." With this paragraph, except the last clause, The Outlook is in entire agreement. What the weight of *authorities* is on this subject we do not venture to affirm; but we are hopeful that America will work out the railway problem as it has worked out the banking problem. Prior to 1863 we had as many banking systems as States, and a wholly fragmentary and unsatisfactory bank currency. A plan was then contrived which preserved individual initiative and enterprise and also secured Governmental supervision and control, and as a result the United States has a currency which only needs more flexibility to be the best paper currency in the world. That the same *method* can be applied to our railway problem we do not affirm. But we believe that it is possible to apply to that problem the same *principle;* that a way can be found by which a similar individual initiative and enterprise can be secured in the railway world with a Governmental supervision and control which will protect and promote the rights and interests of the public. Two great changes have taken place in the dominant opinion among railway managers in the last ten years, and both look in this direction. Railway men have come to see that a considerable measure of Federal control is for the highest interests of the stockholders, and they are coming to see that the railways are public highways and that to be permanently successful as private enterprises they must be administered in the public interest. Mr. Vrooman tells the story of the failure of European attempts at railway regulation by government and of the success of European State ownership and administration. He knows his subject, and he writes with a purpose to be absolutely fair, and, while he is frankly in favor of Government ownership and operation, he does not write as one whose study of the subject has been merely that of an advocate seeking to get facts to support his contention. There are, however, two distinguishing characteristics of America which he does not appear to take account of. One is our Federal system. The Federal ownership and operation of our railways would make the maintenance of independent State governments at least a new if not a more difficult problem. The other is our democratic spirit, which makes the conversion of private enterprise into public enterprise normal and natural. (Oxford University Press, New York. $2.)

Professor Adolf Harnack's work on "The Constitution and Law of the Church in the First Two Centuries" appears in English in less than a year from its publication at Leipsic. It exhibits the historical development of the apostolic and post-apostolic age as contradicting the Catholic and the old Protestant doctrine that "the Church is a deliberate and direct foundation of Christ." To quote its opening sentence: "In no other department of Church history is the opposition between the ecclesiastical and the historical standpoint so great as in that dealing with the earliest constitution of the Church and the history of ecclesiastical law." The details thus pointedly summarized must be

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passed over. It deserves mention here that the primitive community distinguished itself from the synagogue by adopting as its name "the most solemn expression which Judaism used for the whole body of the people in relation to the worship of God" (in Hebrew, *Qāhāl;* translated into the Greek, *ekklesia;* in our version, *church*). Appended to this work is an essay on "Primitive Christianity and Catholicism." In the form of a critique on Sohm's monograph on "The Essence and Origin of Catholicism" Harnack adopts, and also expands, Sohm's brief definition of Catholicism as "the making of the Church as a legal body equivalent to the true Church of Christ." A second appendix is devoted to the origin of the Trinitarian formula—Father, Son, and Spirit. The inclusion of this triplicity under the term "name"—a "mode of expression [which] is not Greek"—Harnack regards as evidence that it originated, not in the Gentile-Christian world, but in Palestine, perhaps between 50 and 80 A.D. Concluding appendices on the various early meanings of the terms "Gospel," "Word of God," "Word of Christ," "afford further evidence of the evolution and freedom which is the general characteristic of the Christian religion." (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.75.)

"The Old Testament Narrative, Separated Out, Set in Connected Order, and Edited by Alfred Dwight Sheffield" meets a present need. It transforms the more or less disconnected and repetitious story of Israel into modern shape, presenting it in the order of events, without repetition, as a connected whole from the earliest time to the successful issue of the Maccabean revolution. The text is that of the common version, with corrections. A sufficiency of critical aid is supplied in its Introduction, together with brief foot-notes and, at points touching the history of other nations, archæological illustrations. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.50.)

Williams College has been represented in literature and journalism by such names as Bryant, Prime, Stoddard, Scudder, Franklin Carter, Henry Mills Alden, Washington Gladden, Stanley Hall, Cuthbert Hall, Leverett W. Spring, Henry Loomis Nelson, George L. Raymond, George E. MacLean, Isaac Henderson, Bliss Perry, Rollo Ogden, F. J. Mather, and others. When these men were undergraduates, they wrote for the literary periodicals of the college. Some of their output in that direction doubtless deserves resurrection. Williams men ought to be grateful to Edwin Partridge Lehman and Julian Park, editors of the "Williams Literary Monthly," for publishing some of this material in a small, compact, well-printed volume under the title "A Williams Anthology." While it is interesting to read the worth-while verse written 'way back in the '50s by that famous Kansan John J. Ingalls, and that more famous Ohioan James A. Garfield, it is even more interesting to note the steady advance in the literary quality of the poetry to the standard set by the present generation of Williams graduates as represented by such men as Benedict, Underwood, Livingston, Tenney, Adams, Banks, Ketchum, Eastman, Brady, Westermann, and, in particular, by the editors themselves. From them we have a body of verse enough to mark the beginning of a "Berkshire School" of poets; certainly enough to challenge comparison with any published in the entire collegiate press. (Privately Printed, Williamstown, Massachusetts.)

There are some who would find it difficult to tell how much their conceptions of some of Dickens's characters are due to Dickens directly and how much to the familiar pictures that bear the names "Phiz" and "George Cruikshank." In the Centenary Edition of Dickens, comprising thirty-six volumes, the familiar illustrations appear. The print is good, the binding is tasteful, and the price is reasonable. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1 per volume.)

Now that Mr. John Redmond has come to be regarded as holding the balance of power and as being the maker and unmaker of Cabinets, his speeches and addresses take on a somewhat new importance. Those delivered during recent years have been collected in a well-printed volume entitled "Home Rule," and are useful, not only as disclosing Mr. Redmond's personal point of view, but as reviewing the history of legislation and attempted legislation for the benefit of Ireland from the time when Mr. Gladstone proposed his first Home Rule Bill to the present. (The Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. $2.50.)

Sir W. Robertson Nicoll, the accomplished editor of the "British Weekly," tells us in the preface to his recent book, "The Round of the Clock," that it "was commenced and carried through under the influence of Oliver Wendell Holmes." Holmes, in "The New Portfolio," humorously tells the story of the race run by a college class through life from their start on commencement day, and divides it into ten-year periods. Nicoll reckons from infancy to age in five-year periods, for which he quotes Scott in "The Abbot:" "At the revolution of every five years we find ourselves another, and yet the same." For these periods he takes the twelve hours indicated by the clock from six in the morning to six in the evening, each intervening minute space on the dial representing a year, and thus gives "the story of our life from year to year," reaching "the cataracts" at fifty-five, and "the zeniths" at sixty. The story here ceases, but the annals continue as successive birthdays are passed in the lengthened evenings of life till ninety-seven. Such is the outline of a work richly filled with material drawn from a wide range of reading in literature, history, biography, and science, and wrought into charming lit-

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erary form. "There are, I think," says the author, "not a few who like to know on their birthdays how others were faring at the same age, and for these this book has been published." (Hodder & Stoughton, New York. $1.25.)

As applied to the professor at the Collège de France, *Sir* Gaston Maspero has a queer sound. Be it remembered, however, that he is Director of Antiquities in Egypt and that England "runs" Egypt. His new book, "Egypt: Ancient Sites and Modern Scenes," deals with the aspect of the country as it has presented itself to him in his annual voyages up and down the Nile to inspect the monuments in his official capacity. His impressions of modern Egypt were of direct help to his understanding and appreciation of ancient Egypt, and this will be the case with every observer, though, of course, in not such far-reaching degree. For with many a scene of present-day life along the Nile the pictures in the old tombs, as we recall them, start to life. This sense of intimacy between present and past is specially to be noted in the author's description of a place whose present—for it is mostly submerged by the barrage—contrasts most acutely with its past; and this place is Philæ. The well-printed book ought to be in the hands of every one who has made or expects to make the Nile voyage. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. $4.)

"The Interpretation of History," by Max Nordau, an interpretation fearfully and wonderfully made, regards history as "a melodrama on the theme of parasitism," and the philosophy of history as a "science of deceit," whose practical purpose is to oppress and deceive the present with the assistance of the past. When the reader comes upon the author's statement that the moons of Jupiter and Saturn rotate round their planets "in the opposite direction to that followed by all other moons," he finds a no less flagrant untruth. If professed atheism were always thus accompanied, as here, it would carry its antidote with it. There is evidently a demand for such vaporings, else who would publish them? But it would be difficult to find, except in the ravings of Nietzsche, an equal contempt for the consensus of serious minds. (Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $2.)

As might be expected from one who has spent much time in Japan and who is a very keen observer, Dr. George Trumbull Ladd's "Rare Days in Japan" offers a welcome opportunity to the ordinary reader of becoming better acquainted with the real life lived in that far-away land. It may be that the author is in some respects somewhat prejudiced; it may be that some of his statements will seem overdrawn; but as a whole his book is certainly illuminating and inspiring, and will be a stimulus towards the acquirement of further knowledge concerning a particularly interesting land and folk. Dr. Ladd has had the very uncommon advantage of seeing the Japanese Court at close range. He had private audience with the Emperor no less than four times, and knows at first hand about the workings of the Court and of Parliament. His chapters on these subjects are thus of peculiar interest. The book is also instructive in its account of the status of Buddhism in Japan. Few realize the closer relations of Buddhism and Christianity there. (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $2.)

Mr. Allen French's book on "The Siege of Boston" is a popular account, graphic in manner, not only of the siege itself, but of the events which led up to it, and practically, therefore, of the history of Boston in the Revolution up to the time of the Evacuation. The narrative is one that should interest young people, for, without being written specifically for them, it has the dramatic setting and quick movement they like. From records, histories, and letters Mr. French gathers incidents and illustrative anecdotes, many of which will be new to most readers. The account is well proportioned and of sustained animation. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

In his small volume on "Kant and His Philosophical Revolution" Professor R. M. Wenley, of the University of Michigan, has made a difficult subject for the general reader as attractive and simple as possible. The opening chapter on Kant's "larger environment"—the origins and condition of his native Germany—is a winsome introduction, followed by an "intellectual perspective" of the science and philosophy of his time. The man himself appears next under the molding influences of his "nearer environment," his parentage, home and school training, religious and academic influences, social and civic life. No morose recluse, but something even of a *bon vivant* did he become, though steeled against all seduction from the vigor and rigor of his regnant purpose. In assurance of its triumph he penned a great prophecy: "After a hundred years people will begin to understand me rightly, and will then study my books anew and appreciate them." The fact is that all the lines of modern philosophy radiate from Kant's epoch-making work, the "Critique of Pure Reason." This effected a revolution like that which Copernicus effected in men's idea of the relation of the earth to the solar system. Kant showed that the universe of knowledge is not a datum to the mind, but a construct by the mind using as tools its own laws and forms. Thenceforward the seat of authority was established in the self-conscious mind. This dissolution of the previous intellectual order matured through a period of development under various influences. These are interestingly traced by Dr. Wenley, who lucidly exhibits its theoretical consequences, and its results, as Kant's central principle unfolded in the subsequent advance of philosophy. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.25.)

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LADY, on account of failing health, has to sell a nice mail order business at a sacrifice. Catalog, stock, and good will in running order. Address B, Box 1,574, Springfield, Mass.

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TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools. Emergency calls coming every day. Send for Bulletin. Albany Teachers' Agency, Albany, N. Y.

BOYNTON-Esterly Teachers' Agencies, Los Angeles, San Francisco, could locate more teachers were excellent ones available.

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WANTED—A woman teacher with wide experience to teach articulation and language in a private school for mentally subnormal children. Must understand correction of speech defects. Highest references required. Salary $75 monthly, with board. Opportunity for promotion. Apply Bancroft Training School, Haddonfield, N. J.

TEACHERS wanted for next year. Men—Chemistry, Physics, $1,200-$1,500; Basket Ball, Arithmetic, $1,000-$1,300; English, History, $900-$1,100; History, $1,200. Women—Grades; Special teachers. Write to-day. New Century Teachers' Bureau, 1420 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

THE Hopkins' Educational Agency, 507 Fifth Ave. Governesses, children's nurses, housekeepers, companions, secretaries, trained, practical nurses. Supplies families, schools, institutions, hospitals.

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Business Situations

SECRETARYSHIP by young woman. To minister preferred. Experienced. Good references. 5,335, Outlook.

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REFINED young lady desires position mother's helper. 5,322, Outlook.

MATRON—In school for coming year. Experienced, capable, refined, good manager. Best references. Box 9, Canton, N. Y.

WANTED, by an energetic, refined, middle-aged widow, position as managing housekeeper, or housemother in a small institution. References. 5,336, Outlook.

COLLEGE graduate as companion abroad during July and August. 5,334, Outlook.

WANTED—Position as superintendent of children's home. Highest references. 5,331, Outlook.

REFINED young woman, having been abroad several times, desires position as companion or nursery governess. References. Address Miss MacLean, 30 Goble St., Newark, N. J.

MEDICAL student, Physicians and Surgeons College, New York, Princeton graduate, desires summer position as companion or tutor in private family. 5,337, Outlook.

MANAGING housekeeper in a small family by an American woman. 5,348, Outlook.

YOUNG woman, conservatory graduate, would like to go abroad for summer as companion or secretary. Six years' experience as secretary. Excellent references. 5,350, Outlook.

EDUCATED and refined physician wishes position of medical attendant or traveling companion to elderly lady or gentleman. 5,346, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED young lady desires position mother's assistant or housekeeper. 5,344, Outlook.

GERMAN girl speaking French desires position as governess or companion to travel. 5,343, Outlook.

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SOUTHERN woman desires position as tutor or companion for summer months. References. Miss Davis, 617 W. Grace St., Richmond, Va.

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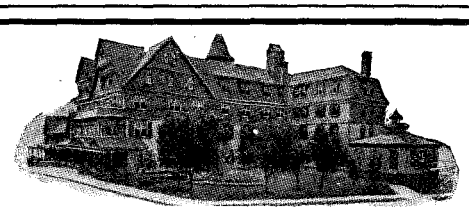

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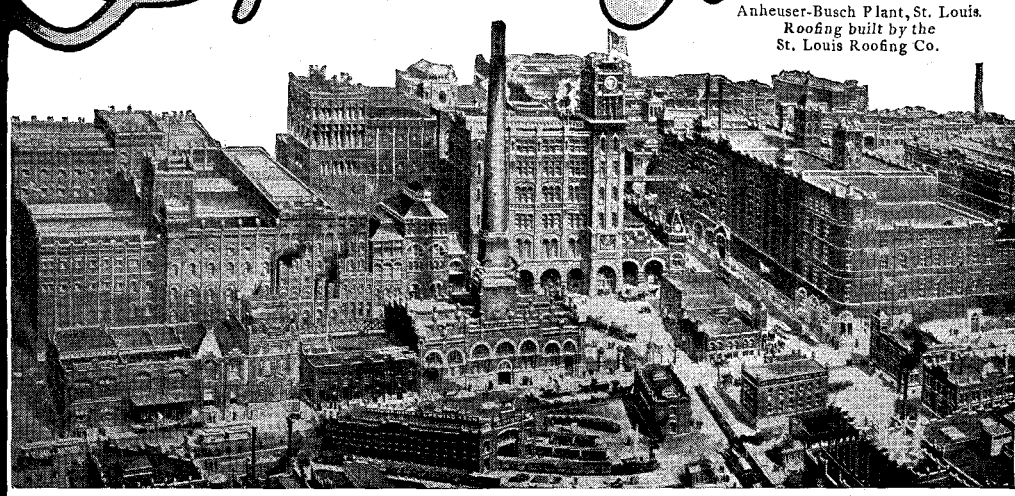

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